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ABSTRACT

This annotated bibliography focuses on the sociological study of the educational process. Topics covered include: (1) classroom interaction; (2) the social organization and structure of schools and the larger society; (3) the socialization of students and teachers; (4) communication strategies and structures; (5) expectancy effects; (6) the relationship of schooling to the larger society; and (7) relevant methodological concerns. The first section of the bibliography contains brief annotations of journal articles and monographs. In the second section, references selected from the first section are reviewed in greater depth and summarized. This is one of a series of reports that form a part of the initial phase of a project to develop an ecological theory of teaching. The intent of this series is to provide access to the concepts, paradigms, and findings of the disciplines selected for review. The long-range goal of the project is the development of a theory of teaching that approaches and views classroom teaching and learning from an ecological perspective. (JD)

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ANNOTATED BIBLIOGRAPHY ON SOCIOLOGY AND EDUCATION

Patricia Green

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Report ETT-78-6e

This paper has been produced under the direction of
William J. Tikunoff and Beatrice A. Ward,
Principal Investigators.
It is part of the process of developing
and implementing an ecological theory of teaching.

INTRODUCTION

This is one of a series of reports by the Far West Laboratory for Educational Research and Development concerned with developing an ecological theory of teaching. Under funding by the National Institute of Education, the project has been underway since December 1977 and is projected to continue contingent upon funding from NIE.

Overall long-range goals of the program are four. An initial goal is the development of a theory of teaching that approaches and views classroom teaching and learning from an ecological perspective. Such a perspective builds from knowledge about teaching/learning in the teacher-student learning group as a sociological as well as a psychological process. An underlying assumption is that, previously, only a psychological perspective has been attended to. Thus, disciplines outside educational psychology will be utilized, e.g. human ethology, sociology, anthropology, environmental psychology, human ecology, communications theory, etc., such that a holistic approach to developing the theory will be used.

Attendant to the theory construction and growing out of efforts to pilot test initial constructs and interrelationships is the development of appropriate research methodologies, the second long-range goal. Both qualitative and quantitative methodologies will have to be examined and those selected which provide a "fit" with the phenomena being examined. In addition, these will have to be piloted toward utilization in the testing of the theory.

A third goal is the development and implementation of strategies--both inservice and preservice--which can be used to train teachers and others to utilize the ecological perspective. Such strategies are perceived as being

more sociological in nature than those previously employed. In addition, it is quite likely that not only teachers but all those involved in interacting with teacher and learner groups--students, principals, other adults, etc.--will need to be reoriented to this perspective.

Finally, as a fourth goal, a restructuring experiment in nature is proposed in order to test the theory in operation. Exactly how the experiment will be designed and conducted is the focus for developmental efforts growing from both the development of methodologies and identification of theoretical constructs and (re) training strategies.

The annotated bibliographies and the longer reviews of selected references presented here are part of the initial phase of developing an ecological theory of teaching. The intent of this work is to provide access to the concepts, paradigms and findings of the disciplines selected for review, and to utilize the knowledge and perspectives of those disciplines to illuminate the concerns of an ecological theory of teaching. We see this process of cross-fertilization to be continuous and additive, and have designed the following format to reflect this assumption.

The results of each disciplinary exploration appear on different colors of paper: Cognitive Anthropology and Sociolinguistics (white); Environmental Psychology (brown); Human Ecology (yellow); Human Ethology (green); Sociology (ivory). The individual annotated bibliographies are paginated by topic; the longer reviews which make up the second part of this document are paginated by reference. There is no consecutive pagination, as we intend these bibliographies and reviews to be open-ended, and ready to receive future contributions.

The following annotated bibliography and longer reviews focus on the sociological study of the educational process. Topics covered include classroom interaction, the social organization and structure of both schools and the larger society, the socialization of students and teachers, communication strategies and structures, expectancy effects, the relationship of schooling to the larger society, and relevant methodological concerns. This task was conducted by Patricia Green of the Department of Sociology, University of Michigan. We are grateful for her efforts on our behalf. We would also like to thank Dr. Steven T. Bossert, also of the Department of Sociology, University of Michigan, for his guidance and advice in the preparation of this document.

William J. Tikunoff
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Associate Research Scientist

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I. ANNOTATED BIBLIOGRAPHY ON SOCIOLOGY AND EDUCATION

II. SELECTED IN-DEPTH REVIEWS

ANNOTATED BIBLIOGRAPHY

Abramowitz, Susan
1977 The effect of school and task structure on teacher interaction, classroom organization, and student affects. Paper presented at Annual Meeting, American Educational Research Association, 57 p. (EDRA No. ED 138 560).

Examined whether smaller schools decrease student alienation and increase program diversity. Conclusions: 1) Teacher interaction, while more prevalent in smaller work groups, is more a function of task structure than size; 2) classroom organization is affected more by the complexity of the task structure than the unit size; 3) students seemed to enjoy class more when they are part of smaller educational unit, though benefits do not flow directly from class size but from a chain of causation in which small groups foster a more complex task structure, resulting in greater interaction with teacher, differentiation, and less student routinization. Based on survey of students and teachers.

Adams, Raymond S.
1975 Social relationships and the classroom. Education (New Zealand) 4, 8-12.

A survey and synthesis of published materials relating to the school and the classroom as social systems, with an attempt to derive propositions of use to the classroom teacher.

_____.
1972 Observational studies of teacher role. International Review of Eudcation, 18, 440-458.

Alexander, Karl, and Bruce K. Ecklund
1975 Contextual effects in the high school attainment process. American Sociological Review, 40(3), 402-416.

Presents a multidimensional model of composition influences. Ability and social status are distinguished, and the interpersonal and social comparison processes by which their effects tend to offset each other are specified. Contextual effect is negative for ability but positive for social status.

Alexander, Karl L., and Edward L. McDill
1976 Selection and allocation within schools: some causes and consequences of curriculum placement. ASR 41: 963-980.

Survey of high school students. Found status background characteristics to be more influential than academic ability in determining curriculum placement. Curriculum placement had substantial independent effects on academic achievement, friendships with college aspirations (for those in college prep), and three subjective outcomes -- college plans, self-conception of academic competence, and intellectual orientation.

Allen, Vernon L.
1976 Research on children tutoring children: a critical review. Review of Educational Research, 46(3), 355-386.

A critical review of the literature of this topic.

Anderson, Barry D.
1973 School bureaucratization and alienation from high school. Sociology of Education, 46(3), 315-334.

Eighteen Ontario high schools were studied. Bureaucratic structure of school decomposed into two parts: status maintenance and behavior control. Alienation is operationalized using Seeman's five dimensions. Results show contextual measures of bureaucratization account for only a small amount of the variance in alienation.

Anderson, James G.
1964 Organizational Structure of the School, Applicability of the Bureaucratic Model to-. Baltimore: Johns Hopkins.

An application of Max Weber's ten functions of bureaucratic officials. Rules are analyzed as a dependent variable (functions of teacher competence, committment, stability of authority, likelihood of direct outside pressure, routinizability of tasks, bureaucratic control, specificity of goals, size, and SES of community) and as an independent variable (causes of impersonality in relationships, teacher motivation, emphasis on means). Not all these relationships are supported by the data.

Anguist. S.S., and H. Borke
1974 An observational system for the evaluation of pre-school programs. Urban Education, 9(3), 284-297.

Observational system which includes forms for teachers and children as well as pairs of observers.

Arlin, M.N. and Ian Westbury
1976 The leveling effect of teacher pacing on science content mastery. Journal of Research in Science Teaching, 13(3), 213-219.

Explores the extent to which instructional management procedures can influence learning and learning rates. The focus is on the comparison of group-paced or teacher-paced instruction. Found that the mean achievement for 3 ability-ranked groups (slow, middle, fast) was significantly higher when groups were self-paced. In addition the means of the three groups were similar when teacher-paced but vastly different from each other when self-paced.

Baldridge, J. Victor, and Terrence E. Deal
1975 Managing Change in Educational Organizations: Sociological Perspectives. Strategies and Case Studies. Berkeley, California: McCutchan Publishing Co., 523 pp.

A reader with three parts. The papers deal with general issues concerning change in educational organizations, the role of various change agents such as principals and consultants, and examples of innovations, in particular education settings.

Barker, R., and P. Gump
1964 Big School, Small School. Stanford, California: Stanford University Press.

A social psychological focus but also deals with ecological environment. School class periods are seen as ecological units. Explores frequency, depth and range of participation and communication and social interaction. Found that while large schools had 20 times more students, they only had 5 times as many settings and 1.4 times more variety in settings. Larger schools had greater variety of extra-curricular activities but proportionately less participation.

Barr, R.C.
1975 How children are taught to read: grouping and pacing. School Review, 83, 479-498.

A study of first grade reading using standardized test scores and interviews with teachers. Found that the way in which children were grouped affected the pace of individual members, teachers were unaware of their control over pacing, and there is influence among teacher colleges in both grouping and pacing. Teacher background variables are also explored.

Bartel, Helmut W.; Nellie R. Bartell; and Jeffrey Grill
1973 Sociometric view of some integrated open classrooms. Journal of Social Issues, 29(4), 159-173.

Peer relationships in one elementary school during integration transition period. Children, age 5-10, in six classrooms were questioned concerning friendship choices. Race played an important factor, increasing with grade level.

Bates, R.J.
1973 Classroom location, learning and status. New Zealand Journal of Educational Studies, 8(2), 142-153.

The association of various factors -- interaction with teacher, classroom complexity, sociometric status -- is reviewed from the literature. Seven hypotheses concerning the relationship between frequency of pupil participation, pupil location, sociometric and academic status are investigated in two classrooms. Findings suggest that complexity of classroom conditions prevents placing reliance on any single variable to explain behavior or achievement.

Beck, E.M. and Michael Betz
1975 A comparative analysis of organizational conflict in schools. Sociology of Eudcation, 48(Winter), 59-74.

Conflict is analyzed as a function of school size, centralization of authority, and teaching specialization. Intra-stratum conflict is found to be a function of degree of central authority in elementary schools; in secondary schools it is more strongly related to size. Interstratum conflict is correlated with all three but seems to decrease according to degree of teaching specialization in secondary schools.

Becker, Howard S.
1972 A school is a lousy place to learn anything in. American Behaviorial Scientist, 16(1), 85-105.

Suggest structural reasons for schools' educational failures: curriculum not individualized, teacher often has little practical knowledge, little feedback on allocation of students' effort and time, rarely discover student weaknesses and give advice on overcoming.

_____
1971 Sociological Work: Method and Structure. London: Penguin Press. 358 pp.

A section of this book includes writings on educational organizations and experiences. Three articles are based on Becker's 1950's research on school teachers in Chicago, examining their careers, the way relationships with pupils are affected by their socioeconomic status, and the way teachers authority fits with the authority system of the school. Other papers deal with occupational identification, the relationship between schools and stratification cross-culturally, and learning which occurs outside of school -- particularly after high schoo

Becker, Howard S.; Blanche Greer; and E.C. Hughes
1961 Boys in White. Chicago: University of Chicago Press.

An ethnographic account of medical school student life. Examines the socialization of students into medical student culture, norms and slang. Discusses the suppression of ideology in terms of work load and peer influence.

Bennett, Neville
1976 Teaching Styles and Pupil Progress. London: Open Books, 197 pp.

Based on observation, argues that formal teaching fulfills its aims in academic area without detriment to the social and emotional development of pupils whereas informal teaching only partially fulfills its aims in the latter as well as engendering comparatively poorer outcomes in academic development. This is due to fact that informal classrooms were engaged in work related activity more often.

Bernstein, Basil (Ed.)
1971,2 Class, Codes and Control: Volumes I-III. London: Routledge and Kegan Paul.

The first volume is a collection of Bernstein's own work in sociolinguistics -- the implications of the differences between the "elaborated code" (middle classes) and the "restricted code" (lower classes). The following two volumes are anthologies of other research in this area.

Biddle, Bruce J.
1969 Teacher roles, in Ebel, Robert L. (ed.). Encyclopedia of Educational Research. 4th ed. London or Toronto: Macmillan, 1499-1506.

Summarizes major English language studies of teacher role according to the Biddle & Thomas paradigm.

Bidwell, Charles E.
1970 Students and schools: some observations on client trust in client-serving organizations. In W.R. Rosengren and M. Lefton (Eds.), Organizations and Clients. Columbus, Ohio: Merrill.

Students are contrasted with customers -- they are members of the school organization, and clients -- they are compulsory, not dyadic, not based on service for fee. Student trust of teachers is problematic since it may conflict with teacher accountability and internal organizational matters. Another unique feature of school is isolation of teacher from colleagues -- must look to student for rewards which increases probability of co-optation into student values. Finally, school goals and student aims are not necessarily compatible.

Bloom, B.S.
1976 Human Characteristics and School Learning. New York: McGraw Hill.

The central thesis of this book is that variations in learning and the level of learning of students are determined by the students' learning history and the quality of instruction they receive. Original research is examined and a model of learning is presented: Student Characteristics (cognitive entry behaviors, affective entry behaviors), Instruction (quality of instruction), Learning Outcomes (level and type of achievement, rate of learning, affective outcomes).

_____.
1974 Time and learning. Amercian Psychologist, 29(2), 682-688.

Discussion of past research which considered the relationship between time and learning, and considers the correlation found between time on task and achievement.

Boocock, Sarane S.
1973 The school as a social environment for learning: social organization and micro-social process in education. Sociology of Education (Winter), 15-50.

Synthesis of literature on the social organization of schools and the interaction comprising the social process of education. 4 major sections: I. Review of Durkheim, Weber, Waller and Jackson; II. Research on structural and dynamic components of school -- role structure, social context, value climate, types of information exchange, influence and rewards; III. Four alternative educational systems; IV. Research implications.

_____.
1972 An Introduction to the Sociology of Learning. New York: Houghton Mifflin, 1972.

Although this is a text book, it offers original insights on the sociology of learning. Several chapters are devoted to classroom processes and much research literature is discussed.

_____.
1966 Toward a sociology of learning: a selective review of existing research. Sociology of Education, 39(Winter), 1-45.

Includes studies of the effects of: classroom structure and techniques, the school system, peer groups, and social groups (family, neighborhood) outside the school.

Borgatta, Edgar, and R.F. Bales
1953 Task and accumulation of experience as factors in the interaction of small groups. Sociometry, 16, 239-252.

A study of the social structure of small groups where the subjects are rotated through a series of groups so that the development of social structure is minimized but the task is kept the same. The evidence suggests that there are developmental trends in the interaction which can be attributed to the type of task and the accumulation of similar experiences by the members. The trends are different from those which appear when social structure is allowed to form.

Borich, Gary et. al.
1976 Classroom observation data: Is it valid? Is it generalizable? A compendium of methodological papers. University of Texas Research and Development Center for Teacher Education. 92 p. (EDRS No. ED 137 371).

The validity and generalizability of classroom observation instruments is discussed. Authors maintain that before consistent and positive process-product relationships can be found, investigators must be aware of these weaknesses in process measures.

Borich, G.D., and D. Malitz
1975 Convergent and discriminant validation of three classroom observation systems: a proposed model. Journal of Educational Psychology, 67(3), 426-431.

Validity of behavioral categories of three common classroom observation systems is examined (IAST, FAIR, and COS). Emphasis is on the efficiency and utility of the validation technique.

Bossert, Steven T.
1977 Tasks, group management, and control behavior: a study of classroom organization and teacher style. School Review, 85(4), 552-565.

A study of teachers' class management technique based on two years of field observation. Analyzes the degree of control (desists per 100 minutes) by activity type (recitation, class task, multi-task, free, organization). A consistent pattern of control within each activity type, regardless of teacher, suggests that task has considerable influence on the type of authority exercised in a given instructional situation. Reasons for this pattern are discussed.

_____.
1975 Tasks and Social Relationships in Classrooms. Unpublished Doctoral Dissertation, University of Chicago.

A sutdy of four elementary school classrooms, two per year. Children were followed from one traditional classroom and one more innovative class, to their next year's classrooms. Through extensive field observation, it was found that classroom friendship networks were influenced by the activity structure of classroom. Recitation led to stable friendships among children of similar achievement levels. Multi-task classrooms exhibited constantly changing groupings of children if disimilar achievement. Author suggests that increased visibility and comparability of performance in recitation classes may explain these findings.

Bowles, Samuel, and Herbert Gintis
1976 Schooling in Capitalist America. New York: Basic Books.

Authors contend that schools function to reproduce the class structure by encouraging traits which will make students the docile workers of the future. Research cited shows that teachers and factory formen list the same qualities as desirable in their respective subordinates. Characteristics such as deference, dependence, punctuality, etc., explain as much variance in grades as cognitive ability. Suggest that study be geared toward the examination of goals and the groups whose interests they support.

Boydell, Deanne
1975 Pupil behavior in junior classrooms. British Journal of Educational Sociology, 45(2), 122-129.

Six unstreamed informal classrooms were observed. Results indicated students spent 1/3 of their time interacting with other children and over half their time out of contact. Involved in own work despite low teacher-student interaction. Sustained conversations in which children explain and develop ideas were rare, indicating it may be more difficult than supposed to initiate real group work.

Braun, Carl
1976 Teacher expectation: sociopsychological dynamics, Review of Educational Research, 46(2), 185-213.

A critical review of research in this area.

British Educational Research Association
1974 Proceedings of the Inaugural Meeting of the British Educational Reserach Association. BERA, 91 pp.

Eight papers are included in the report on two topics: problems of research in classroom studies and problems of curriculum evaluation. Copies of this report are also available from Peter Chambers, West Midlands College of Education, Walsall, Staffs.

Bronfenbrenner, Urie
1977 Toward an experimental ecology of human development. American Psychologist, 32, 513-531.

A broad approach to research in human development that focuses on the progressive accommodation, throughout the life span, between the growing human organism and the changing environments in which it actually lives and grows is proposed. The latter include not only the immediate settings containing the developing person but also the larger social contexts, both formal and informal, in which these settings are imbedded.

_____.
1976 The experimental ecology of education. Teachers College Record, 78(2), 157-204.

Advances a series of propositions urging a broader, ecological view of educational process and research. Emphasis is on new research design involving observation of natural settings and the investigation of person-environment and environment-environment interconnections.

_____.
1967 Response to pressure from peers versus aduits among Soviet and American school children. International Journal of Psychology, 2, 199-207.

Reports a cross cultural study of 12 year old students in the U.S. and U.S.S.R. testing the hypothesis that Soviet children are less likely than American children to experience peer pressure as conflicting with adult values and hence can identify more strongly with adult standards for behavior. The hypothesis was supported and elaborated in terms of differing social contacts in classrooms and cultures.

Brophy, J.E., and C.M. Evertson
1976 Learning from Teaching: A Developmental Perspective. Boston: Allyn and Bacon. 212 p.

Based on a large scale, two year field observation study of second and third grade teachers, the Texas Teacher Effectiveness Project, but also discusses related findings. Teachers were chosen for inclusion in the sample on the basis of consistent effectiveness, operationally defined as consistently high scores by their students on standardized achievement tests. The book attempts to describe the teaching methods which made these teachers effective.

Brophy, J., and T. Good
1974 Teacher Student Relationships: Causes and Consequences. New York: Holt.

Examines most of the work in this area. Chapters on individual differences in teacher-student interaction, teacher expectations, influences of teachers attitudes toward students on classroom behavior, influences of sex of teacher and student on class behavior, individual differences and their implications for teachers and students, promoting proactive teaching, classroom research, implications for teaching, naturalistic and experimental studies of teacher expectation effects and teacher interview-questionnaire studies.

Brown, Frank
1975 Assessment and evaluation of urban schools. Journal of Negro Education, XVIV(3), 377-384.

A critique of current evaluation methods. The author sets up a table of student, teacher and school input variables, distinguishing between those that are and are not being researched. Output measures should include discipline, aspiration, self concept, reading and math skill if properly defined, and school's social and economic benefit to community. Teacher academic preparation and teaching methods are among input variables to be analyzed which will take account of the poorer quality of inner city classrooms.

Brunetti, Frank A.; Cohen Elizabeth G.; Meyer, John W.; and Molnar, Sheila R.F.
1972 Studies of team teaching in open-space school. Interchange, 3(3), 85-101.

Three studies, conducted by the Environment for Teaching Program of the Stanford Center for Research and Development in Teaching, concerning the effects on teachers and learners of factors in the organization of schools, are reported. Teacher influence, autonomy, interaction, and job satisfaction were perceived differently by teachers in open-space team-teaching schools, compared with teachers in self-contained-classroom schools. Observed patterns of decision-making interaction in teaching teams were related to teachers' perceptions of their own influence and autonomy. Observed activity levels of children in open-space team-teaching schools were greater than in schools with self-contained classroom.

Bryant, Brenda K., and Jean C. Murphy
1976 The impact of social norms inherent in teacher evaluation practices. Paper presented at 84th Convention of APA. 10 p.

Examines effects of cooperative, competitive and self-evaluative, individualistic learning environments on subsequent spontaneous self- and other-enhancement behavior of children 8-10. Cooperative environment exhibited patterns of enhancement of self and others; competitive settings enhancement of self at expense of others and individualistic enhancement of self with no effect on others.

Burnett, J.H.; Sally W. Gordon; and Carol J. Gormley
1974 Anthropology and Education: An Annotated Bibliographic Guide. New Haven: HRAF Press, 159 pp.

Caggiano, Rosemary
1970 The relationship between the values and attitudes of elementary school teachers and pupils regarding pupil behaviors. Graduate Research in Education and Related Disciplines, 6(1), 83-97.

Purpose was to ascertain feasibility of measuring the attitudes of children with Q-sort methodology and determine the specific criteria necessary to do so. Results indicate that children have measureable attitudes and values regarding punishable behavior. Attitudes not related to age, sex or ethnic background. Also, less variance was found in teachers' conceptions of punishable/rewardable behavior in than in children's conceptions.

Campbell, Ernest Q.
1969 Adolescent socialization. In David A. Goslin, ed., Handbook of Socialization Theory and Research. Chicago: Rand McNally, 821-859.

Adolescence is not only a time period but a system of rights and duties, a social role. The tasks of adolescents are to extend range of social

contacts, experiment with relations to others, and acquire adult social skills and standards. Socialization is considered with reference to parents, peers, school and youth culture.

Carpenter, Harell H.
1971 Formal organizational structural factors and perceived job satisfaction of classroom teachers. Administrative Science Quarterly, 16(4), 460-465.

Tall, medium and flat public school organizations were tested for possible effects on job satisfaction of teachers. Teachers in flat organizations reported higher job satisfaction than counterparts in three areas: community prestige, professional authority, and participation in setting school goals. The more administrative levels, the more these positions were perceived by the incumbents as restrictive, regimented and formalized.

Carroll, Bonnie
1969 Job satisfaction: a review of the literature. New York: New York State School of Industrial and Labor Relations; Cornell University. 35 p. (Key Issues Series, 3)

Bibliographic essay.

Chanan, Gabriel, and Sara Delmont (eds.)
1975 Frontiers of Classroom Research. Windsor: NFER. 266 p.

Book grew out of two seminars on the state of classroom research in England. Attempts to build an interdisciplinary perspective for studying classroom phenomena. Includes articles on interaction, microteaching, sociolinguistics, and unmotivated students.

Clark, David B.
1976 The academic, the interpersonal and the role of the teacher in social and moral education. Journal of Moral Education, 5(2), 145-157.

Presents a model to demonstrate the importance of three aspects of learning -- the academic requirement, interpersonal learning, and the locus of authority in learning situations. Various typical learning contexts are examined. The crucial area of 'school influence' on pupils is seen to be the teacher-pupil relationship.

Clemont, David E.
1971 Learning and retention in student-led discussion groups. Journal of Social Psychology, 84, 279-286.

Results of an experiment conducted in an undergraduate course in which students were divided into groups of five. Three groups were student-led, three were directed by an instructor. While there was no difference

between groups on tests immediately before and after discussions, students in student-led groups performed better on later tests for retention.

Cobb, J.A.
1972 Relationship of discrete classroom behaviours to fourth grade academic achievemnt. Journal of Educational Psychology, 63(1), 74-80.

Academic achievement was predicted from rates of specific task-oriented and non-task-oriented behaviors in 103 in fourth grade. R^2s were .69 for school A and .63 for school B for arithmetic achievement and behavior; reading and spelling predicted from task behavior produced R^2 = .66 and .50.

Corkran, Marilyn M.
1973 Education for slow learner: student-teacher interaction processes. Sociological Focus, 6(3), 100-110.

Student autonomy seen as ultimate goal for slow learners -- thus students should respond orally with individual ideas. 3 hypotheses: amount of teacher verbalization and teacher directness and content emphasis, student response in brief standard manner and with direct teacher questioning pupil independent responses and teacher indirectness, responsiveness and questioning.

Cohn, E.; S.D. Millman; and It-Keong Chew
1975 Input-Output Analysis in Public Education. Cambridge, Mass.: Ballinger, 135 p.

I/O analyses have been handicapped by insufficient output measures and lack of methodology for dealing with indexing outputs. Both problems are treated. The Pennsylvania experience with ten goals of education is used to illustrate the potential for using a broad range of educational outputs.

Coleman, James S.
1975 Methods and results of the IEA studies of effects of schools on learning. Review of Educational Research, 45(3), 355-386.

A critical review of literature in area.

_____.
1961 The Adolescent Society: The Social Life of the Teenager and its Impact on Education. New York: Free Press.

A classic in American sociology. Motivation of high school students is to achieve and maintain a general social status within the school.

Cooper, Cary L., ed
1975 Theories of Group Processes. London: Wiley, 277 pp.

A collection of original, invited papers focusing on experiential group processes and exploring wide range of interconnections amongst different aspects of group and organizational processes. Topics include leader behavior, group composition and learning strategies.

Cosin, B.R.; R. Dale; G. Easlund; and D.F. Swift (Eds.)
1971 School and Society: A Sociological Reader. London: Routledge and Kegan Paul, 240 pp.

A high proportion of papers are devoted to ways of thinking about social phenomena rather than a description of behavior in educational settings. Its stated purpose is to develop a theoretical approach to the sociology of the school. Four major sections: 1) "Teaching and learning as the construction of reality;" 2) "The culture of the school and the teacher's presentation of self;" 3) "Learning and its organization in school;" 4) "Ideology in education: Curriculum and selection." Phenomenology, symbolic interactionism, and Marxism are represented.

Curtis, R.L.
1974 The issue of schools on social systems: socialization effects as inferred from lengths of membership. Sociological Quarterly, 15(2), 277-293.

Length of student membership is compared with normative orientation on a sample of 7,954 students in 19 schools. Findings show that students did change orientations with longer stays in school and this is taken as evidence that schools are distinctive social systems.

_____.
1974a Parents and peers: serendipity in a study of shifting reference sources. Social Forces, 52(3), 368-375.

Test of theory that length of school membership will be related with adolescents' valuations of three significant others: mothers, father, friends. Shift towards friends was found to occur within first or second year and stabilize. Importance of initial experiences are suggested for further research.

Cunningham, William G.
1975 The impact of student-teacher pairings on teacher effectiveness. American Educational Research Journal, 12(2), 169-189.

Tests the hypothesis that types of students differ in the benefit they reveive from various types of teachers. The study of 715 kindergarteners using various standardized psychological tests and inventories supported the hypothesis.

Dahloff, U.S.
1971 Ability Grouping, Content Validity, and Curriculum Process Analysis. New York: Teachers College Press.

This study seeks to explain earlier findings of research on ability grouping by means of data on the contents of instruction, methods of teaching, and time for curriculum units of different levels of objective. Findings are summarized in a formal model of traditional non-individualized instruction over time. The first section reviews previous research, section two is devoted to a "Reappraisal and Trend Analysis of Some Recent Reports on Grouping and Achievement" while section three describes in detail "A Curriculum Process Analysis Related to Grouping and Achievement."

Deal, Terrence
1975 An organizational explanation of the failure of alternative secondary schools. Educational Researcher, 4(4), 10-16.

Guidelines for more effective organization are based on two case studies. These two differ on six dimensions (who is involved in learning, what is learned, why it is learned, how it is learned, where and when it is learned). 4 stages were uncovered: Euphoria, Psychic Upheaval, Dissatisfaction, and Resolution. Difference is well-knit complex organizational structure.

Delamont, Sara (U. College, Cardiff)
1976 Interaction in the Classroom. London: Metheun, 124 pp.

A volume in "Contemporary Sociology of the Schools Series." This book presents a theoretical framework for understanding classroom interaction in all types of classrooms. Basic tenets of symbolic interactionism and school settings. Research on teachers, pupils and their respective bargaining position within class are discussed using published sources as well as examples from her own fieldwork.

De Vries, David, and Keith Edwards
1974 Student teams and learning games: their effects on cross-race and cross-sex interactions. Journal of Educational Psychology, 66(5), 741-749.

Experimental study found team success did not have predicted positive effect. Playing the game had marginal effect on cross-race interaction; game-team combination increased incidence of both types of interaction over that of games alone.

De Vries, David, and Keith Edwards
1973 Learning games and student teams: their effects on classroom process. American Educational Research Journal, 10(4), 307-318.

Seventh grade math classes were studied over a four-week period. Found that using a learning game created greater student-peer tutoring, less perceived difficulty of material, and greater satisfaction with the class.

Use of student teams increased tutoring, perceived mutual concern, and competitiveness. Use of a games-teams combination resulted in greater peer tutoring than either individually.

Doyle, Walter
1977 Learning the classroom environment: an ecological analysis of induction into teaching. Paper presented at Annual Meeting, American Eudcational Research Association. 32 pp. (EDRS No. ED 135 782).

Generates hypotheses concerning processes invdlved in learning to meet the demands of classroom. Ethnographic data on student teachers indicates that classrooms are characterized by multi-dimensionality, simultaneity and unpredictability. Teachers develop strategies (chunking, differentiation, overlap, timing and rapid judgement) to reduce these complexities.

Dreeben, Robert
1968 On What is Learned in School. Reading, Mass.: Addison-Wesley.

An insightful conceptual discussion of schools' hidden functions. Basic hypothesis is that schools are structured to teach what families cannot. They are large, subdivided and heterogenous, exposing children to a broader range of people and environments. In the process of changing grades and classroom teachers, children learn to serially establish and sever relationships. The fact that relatively few adults are present forces children to become more independent and internally motivated.

Drew, C.J.
1971 Research on the psychological-behavioral effects of the physical environment. Review of Educational Research, 41(5), 447-465.

The author reviews research studies which have explored the effects of small-scale environmental change on subjects' behavior. Both the behavioral and psychological effects of such changes are examined, the methodological issues covered, and implications drawn for the creation of effective learning and living environments.

Driesson, Jon J., and Julene Newland Pyfer
1975 An unconventional setting for a conventional occasion: a case study of an experimental adult education program. Sociology of Education, 48(1), 111-125.

Paper explores how specific settings may bear upon the nature of a social event through the ways in which settings routinely are taken into account by persons in those settings.

Dunkin, M.J., and B.J. Biddle
1974 The Study of Teaching. New York: Holt. 490 pp.

This book is designed as a text for advanced courses. Twelve chapters: 1) Outlook and orientation, 2) Research failure and ideological response, 3) A model for classroom teaching, 4) Methodological problems in classroom research, 5) Classroom climate, 6) Management and control, 7) The classroom as a social system, 8) Knowledge and intellect, 9) Logic and linguistics, 10) Sequential patterns of classroom behavior, 11) Findings for teachers, 12) Recommendations for researchers. Includes a lengthy bibliography.

Eggleston, John
1973 Decision making on the school curriculum, a conflict model. Sociology, 7(3), 377-394.

Decision making within the school is focus with end result a model of the autonomy and interrelationship of educational personnel.

Emmer, E.T.; T.D. Oakland; and T.L. Good
1974 Do pupils affect teachers' styles of instruction? Educational Leadership, 31(8), 700-704.

Discovery style is compared to expository style of teaching. Results indicate that pupils' participation in lesson affects subsequent preference for using that style.

Enturile, Doris, and Murray Webster
1974 Expectations in mixed racial groups. Sociology of Education, 47(3), 301-318.

Studies how status characteristics of adults and children affect adult's ability to raise child's expectations of his ability to perform school-like tasks. Adults are effective with same race children. In mixed racial work groups, white adults are not effective with black children nor are black adults with white children. Findings interpreted in light of children's SES also.

Epstein, Joyce L., and James M. McPartland
1976 Classroom organization and the quality of school life. Report No. 215. Johns Hopkins University Center for the Study of Social Organization of Schools: Baltimore, MD. 41 pp.

Analysis of survey data from 39 schools. Three hypotheses: 1) satisfaction with school related to changes in school practice effecting social structure, 2) commitment to classwork is related to task structure, 3) relations to teachers are determined by changes in the authority structure. Findings show that openess of instructional program (which may include change in authority structure) is most influential on student perception of quality of student-teacher interaction.

Feldman, K.A.
1971 Using the work of others: some observations on reviewing and integrating. Sociology of Education, 44(1), 86-102.

Large-scale overviews of existing research may be considered a type of research in its own right just as much as 'primary' research, with the important function of pointing out how little as well as how much is known in a particular field. The problems, functions, and values of this type of research are discussed.

Flanders, N., and G. Nuthall (Eds.)
1972 The classroom behavior of teachers: an overview. International Review of Education, 18(4).

An editorial summary of this special issue, devoted to classroom behavior of teachers. Concludes with a bibliography on the topic.

Franks, David, et. al.
1976 The effects of open schools on children: an evaluation. Final Report, Denver University, Colorado. Department of Sociology. 474 pp. (EDRS No. ED 138 606).

Five parochial elementary schools were compared to two traditional parochial schools to determine their effects on student attitudes toward self and learning, as well as development of educational and cognitive skills. No difference between two types on standardized achievement tests. Open school students were more positive in attitudes towards teachers and schools, were higher in both general and school-related self esteem and were stronger in cooperative skills. A substudy of parents' childrearing styles was undertaken to confirm that the findings were due to differences in school organization rather than home influence. A small follow-up study was done to ascertain student adjustment to traditional and open high schools.

Fullan, Michael, and Jan J. Loubser
1972 Education and adaptive capacity. Sociology of Education, 45(3), 271-287.

Major dimensions of adaptive capacity are mapped out using both sociological and psychological literature. The relationship between education and adaptiveness is discussed as well as the adaptive functioning of social systems.

Gamage, Philip
1971 Teacher and Pupil: Some Socio-Psychological Aspects. London: Routledge and Kegan Paul, 116 pp. (Students Library of Education)

This is an introduction to the social psychology of learning. Against a background of group dynamics and of sociometry, the author examines the

school class as a group, and considers the formation of some of the attitudes of children and of the teacher as these relate to education. He particularly focuses upon the ways in which relationships can affect classroom climate. One chapter is concerned with social orientation and linguistic environment.

George, Paul S.
1975 Ten years of open space schools: a review of research. Florida Educational Research and Development Council Research Bulletin, 9(3), 1-84.

Includes methodological critique of research literature as well as history and effects of open plan schools.

Gerald, Grace R.
1972 Role Conflict and the Teacher. London: Routledge and Kegan Paul. 149 pp.

Role differences not necessarily related to major conflict or strain. Teachers dealing with less able groups experienced more conflict and relied more heavily on external recognition. Based on investigation of 150 teachers.

Gigliotti, R.J., and W.B. Brookover
1975 The learning environment: a comparison of high and low achieving elementary schools. Urban Studies, X(3), 245-261.

Matched schools, differing in achievement, were compared and found to differ along 7 dimensions: 1) teacher/principal evaluation and expectations of students; 2) perceived teacher-principal/parent expectation by student; 3) student aspirations; 4) student sense of control; 5) teacher press for achievement; 6) pupil turnover rate; 7) teacher's report of parental interest.

Glidwell, John C.; Mildred B. Kantor; Louis M. Smith; and Lorene A. Stringer
1966 Socialization and social structure in the classroom. In Hoffman, Lois Wiandis and Martin L. Hoffman, Review of Child Development Research, Vol. 2, 221-256.

A critical and comprehensive review of literature in the area.

Golden, M.; W.H. Bridges and A. Monlare
1974 Social class differences in the ability of young children to use verbal information to facilitate learning. American Journal of Orthopsychiatry, 44(1), 86-91.

Sixty two-year old white males, 30 of whose mothers were college graduates and 30 whose mothers did not go beyond high school were given learning tasks under verbal or non-verbal conditions. No difference in learning

occurred in non-verbal conditions but there were significant differences under the verbal learning conditions, with children of college mothers performing better. Suggests social class differences in intellectual performance may manifest themselves between 18 and 26 months, when language first becomes important for learning.

Gordon C. Wayne
1957 The Social System of the High School. Glencoe: Free Press.

A study of Wabash School (576 students) in 1949-50. Author was teacher there from 1942 to 1952. Examined the relationship between grades, formal membership in clubs, informal friendships and social status within the school. Many interesting findings,

Grolund, Norman E.
1953 Relationship between sociometric status of pupils and teachers' preferences for or against having them in class. Sociometry, 16, 142-150.

The relationship between sociometric status of pupils and teachers' preferences for or against having them in class is investigated. Findings indicate that there is a general tendency for teachers to most prefer those pupils that are highly chosen on the sociometric test and to least prefer those pupils that receive relatively few choices.

Grossman, Bruce D.
1969 Extracurricular parent-child interaction and children's socially reinforced task behavior. Journal of Genetic Psychology, 114, 291-99.

Twenty-seven 1st graders and their parents were studied. Mothers were interviewed regarding amount of parent-child non-caretaking interaction, its affectional quality and mothers satisfaction with the relationship. Children were then given tasks in the classroom to be socially reinforced by experimenter.

Guttentag, Marcia
1972 Children in Harlem's community controlled schools. Journal of Social Issues, 28(4), 1-20.

A community controlled school district in Harlem compared with a non-community controlled district showed: stronger intellectual and expressive climate in school, greater parent use of school, more positive teacher-pupil interaction and shifts in childrens' expectancies towards greater awareness of power of teachers and parents in school.

Habenstein, Robert W. (Ed.)
1970 Pathways to Data: Field Methods for Studying Ongoing Social Organizations. Chicago: Aldine-Atherton, 276 pp.

Original articles designed to communicate the procedures and strategies of field research. Common orientation is Glaser and Strauss's Discovery of Grounded Theory. Process is stressed above system, becoming over being. One chapter deals with observational research on college campus.

Haigh, N.J.
1974 Teacher expectancy: accuracy, change and communication. New Zealand Journal of Educational Studies, 9(2), 97-112.

Several aspects of teacher expectancy were investigated in a limited sample (eight classes in four schools). Teachers were found to assess accurately the relative potential reading performances of pupils in most cases. The techniques for obtaining a record of class discussions is described and evaluated. High, medium and low expectation groups and various types of teacher contact and response opportunities are tabulated and analyzed statistically.

Haigh, Gerald
1975 The School and the Parent. London: Pitman, 103 pp.

Examines relationship of home and school from viewpoint of teacher with regard to practical problems. Extent to which open-door policy and parent power is workable is explored.

Hallen, E.J.
1967 Pupil influence in teacher socialization: a sociolinguistic study. Sociology of Eudcation, 40(4), 316-333.

A model is proposed in which pupils shape teacher behavior through operant conditioning. Certain linguistic effects (decreased speech complexity in adult interaction) were found to result from filling a teacher's role. Speech forms are suggested as sociologically useful variables in studies of occupational socialization.

Hanson, E. Mark, and Michael E. Brown
1977 A contingency view of problem solving in schools: a case analysis. Paper presented at Annual Meeting, American Educational Research Association. 26 pp. (EDRS No. ED 138 499)

Patterns of problem-solving activity in a middle class urban high school are analyzed within a contingency theory framework. Authors contend that as conditions in the organization's environment become problematic, internal structures will be modified. Schools are viewed as networks of interlacing cycles of events dependent upon student and teacher behavioral cycles and organizational environment. Data gathered by participant observers over six months. Ten propositions on problem solving are suggested.

Hargreaves, D.H.; S.K. Hester; and F.J. Mellon
1975 Deviance in Classrooms. London: Routledge and Kegan Paul. 228 pp.

Observation and interview data from two secondary schools were analyzed using interactionist and phenomenological approach. The authors specify which rules are enforced, the way in which recognition of deviant act depends upon interpretation in context, the labeling process and teachers' decisions concerning how to react.

Harnett, Rodney T., and John A. Centra
1974 Research note: faculty views of the academic environment: situational vs. institutional perspectives. Sociology of Education, 47(1), 159-169.

Faculty/students/administrators have different value structures. To what extent does this influence interpretation of how institution functions and what its goals seem to be? Data gathered from use of Institutional Functioning Inventory, an instrument designed to ascertain environment.

Harper, Gregory F., et. al.
1977 Relationship of two measures of classroom behavior to academic achievement of kindergarten, first and second grade children. Paper presented at Annual Meeting, American Educational Research Association. 68 pp. (EDRS No. ED 138 636).

Direct observation, teacher rating and measured intelligence were used to predict achievement. Results indicate that classroom behaviors have independent effect on achievement. Developmental and environmental influences on this relationship are also considered.

Hills, Stuart L.
1969 Lower class youth and the public schools: America's failure. Ball State University Forum, 9(4), 37-45.

Focus is on both the early socialization experiences and the middle class environment of school.

Hoekter, A.J., and W.P. Ahlbrand
1969 The persistence of the recitation. American Educational Research Journal, 6(2), 145-169.

Article discusses and reviews classroom observational studies concerned with describing instructional practices.

Hoy, Wayne K., and Richard Rees
1974 Subordinate loyalty to immediate superior: a neglected concept in the study of educational administration. Sociology of Education, 47(2), 268-286.

Blau and Scott's concept of loyalty was applied to hierarchical relationships in public secondary schools. A negative relationship was found between

teacher loyalty and administrative authoritarianism; positive relationships were found between teacher loyalty and both hierarchical influence and emotional detachment. No relationship between loyalty and hierarchical independence.

Hunt, David E.
1975 Person-environment interaction: a challenge found wanting before it was tried. Review of Educational Research, 45(2), 209-230.

A critical review of literature in area.

Hutcheon, Pat Duffy
1975 A Sociology of Canadian Education. Toronto: Van Nostrand Rheinhold Ltd., 288 pp.

The first two parts of five are useful. I. The classroom as a social system, contains chapters on socialization and social organization. II. The school as a formal organization, contains chapters on roles and authority.

Hymel, Shelly, and Steven Asher
1977 Assessment and training of isolated children's social skills. Paper presented at Biennial Meeting, Society for Research in Child Development. 33 pp. (EDRS No. ED 136 930).

Purposes of study were to learn about: 1) ways of identifying children not accepted by their peers, 2) the behavioral correlates of peer acceptance, 3) strategies of teaching social skills to isolated children. Sociometric assessment, behavioral observation and interviews were obtained in eight 3rd-5th grade classrooms. Found their rating scale to be valid, observed no behavioral correlates of acceptance, and that individualized coaching was most effective intervention.

Inge, Earl B., Jr., and Richard E. Musterman
1977 Relationship of values to group satisfaction. Paper presented at the Annual Meeting of American Educational Research Association. (EDRA No. ED 137 945).

Teachers and principals were asked to respond to the VAL-ED and Testing Group Satisfaction Inventory. Analysis revealed that principal-teacher value divergence was associated with group satisfaction. Also group satisfaction was related to perceived degree of principal's democtratism.

Jackson, Phillip
1968 Life in Classrooms. New York: Holt, Rhinehart and Winston, 177 pp.

Author examines life in elementary school classrooms. Combines review of past research with his own discussion and speculation. Chapters are entitled: The Daily Grind, Students' Feelings about School, Involvement

and Withdrawal in the Classroom, Teachers' Views, The Need for New Perspectives. The chapter on teacher views is based on the author's original research and contains lengthy excerpts from his interviews with fifty teachers.

Johnson, D.A.
1976 Treating black students like white students: a definition of school integration. Urban Education 1976 XI(1), 95-114.

Three elementary classrooms involved in voluntary busing in Oregon were observed. Black students were treated like white students. There was no treatment of black culture and no attempt to reinforce dignity of black students. Economically and scholastically, the black students were of lower status than whites, a fact which all students perceived. "Integration" needs to be redefined.

Johnson, David W., and Roger T. Johnson
1974 Instructional goal structure: cooperative, competitive or individualistic. Review of Educational Research, 44(2), 213-240.

A critical review of literature in area.

Johnson, Norris Brock
1976 The longitudinal and cross-section approach to a descriptive ethnography of schooling. Paper presented at Annual Meeting of AAA. 8 pp. (EDRS No. 138 498).

Ethnographic classroom research was carried out in a rural, midwestern village over a nine-month period. Author refined standard classroom observation forms to and techniques in order to reveal the social organization of schooling as the environment for processes of cultural transmission.

Jones, Ruth S.
1974 Teachers: socialized while socializing. Urban Education, 9(1), 71-81.

One year study of social studies teachers when community participation approach to subject was introduced. Measured political attitudes and self-reported teaching styles at beginning and end of year. Pedagogical change was related to increases in image and experience, race (black), and sex (male).

Kalleberg, Arne L.
1977 Work values and job rewards: a theory of job satisfaction. American Sociological Review, 42, 124-243.

Work values and perceived job characteristics were scaled by R's on the following six dimensions:

1) Intrinsic: interest, utilization of abilities, self-direction. 2) Extrinsic-convenience: travel to and from, good hours, physical surroundings, no excessive amounts of work, no conflicting demands, time to complete task; 3) Extrinsic-financial: pay, fringe benefits, job security; 4) Extrinsic-relations with co-workers: opportunity to make friends, friendly and helpful coworkers; 5) Extrinsic-career: promotional possibilities -- fair, distribution; 6) Extrinsic-resource adequacy: help, equipment, authority and information sufficient, coworkers competent, supervision sufficient for task completion.

Findings: Values have independent effect on job satisfaction. Degree of control over job situation affects perceived job rewards. Data: 1972-73 Quality of Employment Survey.

Kate, Fred E.
1964 The school as a complex organization. Harvard Educational Review, 34 (Summer), 428-455.

Author suggests that patterns of autonomy and diversification are incorporated into the structure of schools. Sub-units are independent of each other and the whole organization. Since autonomy structures are based on specialization, can be seen as coordination specialists. Autonomy is clearest when compliance rules are clearly stated. External autonomy to organizational role (teachers unions, adolescent subcultures) is also discussed. A formal conceptualization of roles and degrees of internal/external autonomy is presented.

Kessen, W. (Ed.)
1975 Childhood in China. New Haven, Conn.: Yale University Press.

This book is the result of a brief trip to China by some of America's leading authorities on children. Schools and pre-schools were visited. Settings and activity types are described.

Kounin, J.S., and P.V. Gump
1974 Signal systems of lesson settings and the task-related behavior of preschool children. Journal of Educational Psychology, 66(4), 554-562.

Thirty-six teachers were videotaped teaching 596 lessons. Task involvement is criteria for success. Lessons (signal systems) were characterized along dimensions of continuity, insulation and intrusiveness. Most successful lessons were those in which there is a continuing and protected signal system (i.e., individual instruction). Least successful were those dependent upon discontinuous inputs from other children (i.e., role play) and those having high intrusiveness (i.e., gross motor activity).

Kounin, Jacob S.
1970 Discipline and Group Management in Classrooms. New York: Holt.

This book explores the "ripple effect" in discipline. Author's own research, both experimental and observational, is reported.

Kowatrakul, Surang
1959 Some behaviors of elementary school children related to classroom activities and subject areas. Journal of Educational Psychology, 50(3), 121-128.

Naturalistic observation of 5th and 6th grade students. Behavioral categories used were "task-oriented," "work-oriented social exchange," "social-friendly," "momentary withdrawal," "intent on work in another academic area," "intent on non-academic work." Classroom activities were categorized as independent seat work, watching and listening, or discussion. Correlations between behaviors and classroom activities, and between behaviors and subject areas are analyzed.

Landis, Dan; Penny L. McGraw; and Harry C. Triandis
1975 Behavioral intentions and norms of urban school teachers. In Verna, Gajendra K. and Christopher Bugley (ed.), Race and Education Across Cultures. London: Heinemann, 117-144.

Differences in the subjective culture and the relations of these differences to classroom behavior are the subject of a number of studies reported in this chapter. Survey data showed certain features of role perception, role performance and group referents to be important in setting behavioral norms and intentions.

Larkin, Ralph W.
1975 Social exchange in the elementary school classroom: the problem of teacher legitimation of social power. Sociology of Education, 48 (Fall), 400-410.

Investigates five hypotheses: 1) Task orientation of teachers is positively related to classroom morale; 2) Expressive orientation of teachers is positively related to classroom morale; 3) Teacher power orientation and classroom morale are unrelated; 4) Increased use of power by teacher leads to increased difficulty legitimating it; 5) Teachers legitimate their use of power only by satisfying the task and expressive needs of students.

Laughton, W.H., and Wilkinson, W.J.
1973 A study of some pupil, home and school variables associated with attitudes to science. Durham Research Review, 6(30), 748-651.

Previous research has indicated that sociological factors are important in the choice of science subjects and a science career. Sociological

influences on attitudes to science are listed and questionnaires devised to measure these attitudes. These were given to a random sample (263 boys and 270 girls) from 20 schools, of potential GCE junior - secondary age pupils. Many classified variables (pupil, home and school) were considered and several types of analysis employed. The five hypothesised relationships of sociological factors and attitudes to science were all supported by the results.

Leighton, Dorothea C.; Judith Jacobs; and Gerald M. Davis
1972 Measuring stress levels of school children as a program monitoring service: three years of experience in a single school system. Research Previews, 19(2), 38-48.

Find less stress as age increases; blacks more than white, females more than males. Black females least affected in change in stress since 1969.

Lindholm, L.P., and B. Lundquist
1973 Cooperation and independence: studies of assessment techniques in observations of small groups. Dept. of Educational and Psychological Research, School of Education, Malmo, Sweden. 15 pp. (Educational and psychological interactions No. 42).

Describes the attempt to measure pupils ability to cooperate and their independence by means of a systematic observation technique. Relationships between group size and observation scores and between duration of group work assignments and observation scores were investigated as well as other types of data (personality, intelligence, teacher ratings of creativity).

Litow, Leon
1975 Classroom interdependent group-oriented contingencies: an annotated bibliography. 19 pp. (EDRS No. ED 134 886).

Includes 26 behavioral studies from 1968-1972 which have empirically evaluated the relative effectiveness of interdependent group-oriented contingencies within the classroom setting.

Litwak, Eugene, and Henry J. Meyer
1974 School, Family and Neighborhood: The Theory and Practice of School-Community Relations. New York: Columbia University Press, 296 pp.

Focused on administrative styles, the authors analyze "linking mechanisms" the school can use to reach out to the community to effect change.

Lloyd, R.G., et. al.
1956 The relationship between academic achievement of pupils and the social structure of the classroom. Rural Sociology, 21, 179-180.

Report of a study to determine the intercausal relationships between the social acceptability of pupils to their peers and their academic achievement. Conclusions were that those children successful in schoolwork will also be successful in social relationships with classmates; intelligence seems to be the basis for acceptance and rejection, though to the children it is manifested in school achievement; achievement seems a basic factor preceding acceptability.

Lortie, Dane
1975 Schoolteacher: A Sociological Study. Chicago: University of Chicago.

The description of teaching centers on three themes: the isolation and automony of the classroom teacher, the self-perpetuating character of this inherently conservative occupation, and the uncertainty of its technology. The causes and consequences of these features of teaching are studied in turn by historical analysis, by comparative analysis of recruitment, socialization, and rewards, and, finally, by examination of what teachers have to say about their work. Data comes from intensive interviews with 94 elementary and secondary teachers and the results of a survey of all teachers in Dade County, Florida.

Loubser, Jan
1970 The contribution of schools to moral development: a working paper in the theory of action. Interchange, 1(1), 99-117.

An ideal-typical and analytical concept of moral action are derived. Moral action involves capacity to be involved with others as whole persons as well as consciencious decision making. A major part of paper is devoted to an examination of some social structural features of schools, indicating the considerable extent to which schools ordinarily inhibit development of moral capacity.

Lunetta, Vincent N., et. al.
1976 Interactive Incidents in Elementary School and Community. OPS 3, Science Education Center, Iowa University, Iowa City. (EDRS No. ED 138 449).

Pamphlet for use in teacher education programs describing incidents involving interactions of a teacher with students, other teachers, administrators and parent community. Guidelines for stimulating effective group interaction, either as small group discussion or role playing activities, are listed.

Martin, Wilfred B.
1975 Negotiated order of teachers in team teaching situations. Sociology of Education, 48(Spring), 202-222.

Emphasis on teacher-teacher interaction. Observed three teams. Interactions can be typified as "Bargain," "Stalemate," "Demonstration." Found that most teachers felt that "everyone wins" in team negotiating.

Mayer, R.E., and J.G. Greens
1972 Structural differences between learning outcomes produced by different instructional methods. Journal of Educational Psychology, 63(2), 165-173.

The sequencing and degree of structure was manipulated in this experimental study. Significant differences were found on the post-test between groups in one of the three experiments. Authors suggest that the better performance of the group which emphasized general concepts is that these activated structures in subjects' previous knowledge.

McDill, Edward, and Leo C. Rigsby
1973 Structure and Process in Secondary Schools: The Academic Impact of Educational Climates. Baltimore: Johns Hopkins.

Problems: 1) To what extent do "climates" vary? 2) Consequences of this variance for students; 3) Sources of variation. Cross-sectional survey study of twenty high schools in eight states. Climate = students' and teachers' reports of it; factors analyzed include academic emulation, student perception of intellectualism and aestheticism, cohesiveness and egalitarianism, scientism and humanistic excellence.

McPherson, Gertrude H.
1972 Small Town Teacher. Cambridge, Mass.: Harvard University Press. 215 pp.

Participant observation study of a group of elementary school teachers in a small rural New England town. Merton's concept of "role-set" and Neal Gross' conceptual refinements provide theoretical framework. Relationships of teachers to students, colleagues, parents, administration, as well as custodial and health staff, the community and the profession.

Meighan, Roland
1973-74 The concepts of authoritarian and democratic regimes and classroom discipline. Dudley Educational Journal, 1(3), 26-30.

Author contends that there is not a radical break between these leadership types and situational justifications for different types of control is frequently overlooked. Describes forms of authoritarian systems -- autocratic, paternalistic, charismatic, expertise and organization, and types of democratic systems. Both types can be seen in classrooms.

Midwinter, Eric
1972 Social Environment and the Urban School. London: Ward Lock Educational. 48 pp.

This book is intended as a guide for teachers in urban schools wishing to develop a curriculum which aims to acquaint children more closely with their immediate social environment. A set of criteria is suggested to decide what is relevant to such a curriculum given the child's conception of his environment. Ways of fitting this curriculum into more conventional subject boundaries are discussed, and a program of work outlined. Methods of linking this curriculum directly to the environment, using various types of parental involvement are also suggested.

Miles, William R., et. al.
1976 The implementation of IGE and related home-school-community relations programs and activities: seven case studies. Theoretical Paper No. 64, University of Wisconsin, Research and Development Center for Cognitive Learning. (EDRS No. ED 135 097). 105 pp.

Each case study describes the implementation of Individualized Guided Education programs and home-school-community relations activities at the school site. Open ended interviews and field observation. Cases provide data base for further conceptual-theoretical analysis.

Miskel, Cecil, and Ed Gerhardt
1974 Perceived bureaucracy, teacher conflict, central life interests, voluntarism and job satisfaction. Journal of Educational Administration, 12(1), 84-87.

Paper attempts to isolate the individual factors in conflict which teachers experience in their work, and second, to determine their relationships to bureaucracy, interests, voluntarism and job satisfaction.

Moore, Omar Khayyam, and Alan Ross Anderson
1969 Some principles for the design of clarifying educational environments. In Goslin, David A., ed., Handbook of Socialization Theory and Research. Chicago: Rand McNally, 571-613.

Aims to explain and illustrate a set of principles for designing learning environments.

Nash, Roy
1976 Teacher Expectations and Pupil Learning. London: Routledge and Kegan Paul, 89 pp.

Relates research findings on teacher expectation to interactionist theory, discussing studies of the attitudes, feelings and actions of teachers and pupils in the classroom. Includes a chapter on classroom climate and a chapter on research as it relates to practical teaching.

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1973 Clique formation among primary and secondary school children. British Journal of Sociology, 24(3), 303-313.

One hundred fifty-two 12 year old children and (unstreamed) their teachers were questioned. Results show that social class, school attitudes and IQ have some influence on friendship choices but, in addition, cliques are clearly made up of children favorably/unfavorably perceived by teachers.

National School Boards Association
1973 Three reviews of contemporary research literature: class size, open plan schools, flexible-modular scheduling. Research Report No. 1973-1. National School Boards Association: Washington, D.C. 21 pp. (EDRS No. ED 135 079).

Review of the literature in these three areas implies that changes in the use of space and the use of student teacher time may be more effective than reducing class size.

Neugarten, Bernice
1942 Social class and friendship among school children. American Journal of Sociology, 51, 305-313.

Friendship status and reputation of school children in a typical middle western community are found to parallel social-class position. Data are presented in terms of the votes cast and the votes received by each social-status group, on each of five statements about friends and each of eighteen statements about reputation. Age differences are discussed.

Omark, Donald R.; Martha L. Fiedler; and Robert S. Martin
1976 Dominance hierarchies: observational technique applied to the study of children at play. Instructional Science, 5(4), 403-423.

Methodological article examining seven major observational techniques are discussed in context of dominance hierarchies. Strengths and weaknesses of each are discussed.

O'Reilley, R.P., and G.J. Illenberg
1971 Relationship of classroom grouping practices to diffusion of students' sociometric choices and diffusion of students' perception of sociometric choice. Californian Journal of Educational Research, XXII(3), 104-114.

Students in classrooms organized by pupil teams for instruction and students in conventionally structured classrooms were administered a sociometric device designed to measure the extent of social diffusion along the three dimensions of liking, school competence and social power. The results were also analyzed in terms of the graded or nongraded structure of the sample

schools. Classrooms organized by pupil teams for induction were consistently less diffuse in social structure than were the conventionally organized classrooms, both graded and non-graded. The authors interpret this lack of social diffusion as the result of the unique instructional setting of the team learning classroom as opposed to the conventionally structured classroom.

Paolitto, Diana Pritchard
1976 The effect of cross-age tutoring on adolescence: an inquiry into theoretical assumptions. Review of Educational Research, 46(2), 214-237.

Critical review of material in this area.

Parsons, Talcott
1959 The school class as a social system: some of its functions in American society. Harvard Educational Review, 29(4), p. 299.

Expands upon Durkheim's view of schools as mechanisms for cultural socialization, adding the schools' function of "selection" -- that schools sort students for future status.

Pepitone, Emmy A.
1972 Comparison behavior in elementary school children. American Educational Research Journal, 9(1), 45-63.

Extends comparison theory to elementary classroom, describes inter-action methodology used to determine occurrence, and summarizes three studies which test theoretical implications. Results indicate: 1) comparison behavior increased in situations of greater cognitive unclarity, 2) comparison behavior is function of task similarity. Sex, confidence, competence and achievement related behavior are also considered.

Perkins, H.V.
1964 A procedure for assessing the classroom behavior of students and teachers. American Educational Research Journal, 1(4), 249-260.

Developed two instruments, "Student Categories" and "Teacher Categories." The former includes nine behavioral categories and six categories covering learning activity; the latter includes 10 categories based on Flander's analysis and five teacher-role categories.

Posner, G.J.
1974 The extensiveness of curriculum structure: a conceptual scheme. Review of Educational Research, 44, 401-407.

Review of literature on this topic.

Rabin, A.I., and Bertha Hazan (eds.)
1973 Collective Education in the Kibbutz. New York: Springer Publishing. 183 pp.

A detailed and comprehensive statement about the educational approach and experience by kibbutz educators. Includes chapter on unconventional method of teacher training.

Rabow, Jerome, and Thomas Robischon
1972 The public school: organizational and teacher goals. Education and Urban Society, 4(4), 468-488.

Three schools were studied using a combination of observation, survey, and analysis of official documents. The focus was on the differences between teacher goals and administration goals and the actual functions of the school. Three series of propositions are presented concerning: 1) Conditions for the achievement of multiple goals; 2) Conditions for the achievement of unilateral goals; 3) Conditions under which high commitment from teachers are likely.

Radhawa, Bikkar S., and Lewis L.W. Fu
1973 Assessment and effect of some classroom environment variables. Review of Educational Research, 43(3), 303-322.

A critical review of literature in area.

Ramey, Craig T., and Vera Piper
1974 Creativity in open and traditional classrooms. Child Development, 45(2), 557-560.

Creativity tests were given to a sample of thirty elementary school children from an open school and a traditional school. The former scored higher on all measures of figural creativity while the latter's performance was superior on tests of verbal creativity. Possible interpretations of these results are offered.

Reid, Ivan, and Eileen Wormald (eds.)
1974 Sociology and Teacher Education. London: ATCDE. 127 pp.

Collection of articles considered to be most significant in area.

Reid, William A., and Decker Walker (eds.)
1975 Case Studies in Curriculum Change. London: Routledge and Kegan Paul.

Five case studies which exemplify the processes of deliberation and tactical judgement typical of American and British educational institutions.

Reynolds, D.; D. Jones; and S. St. Leger
1976 Schools do make a difference. New Society, 37(721), 223-225.

A follow up of a study by Power in 1967 of Tower Hamlet secondary schoolboys which showed large differences in school's delinquency rates unrelated to home environment. This is a preliminary report of initial findings.

Richer, Stephen
1975 School effects: the case for grounded theory. Sociology of Education, 48(Fall), 383-399.

Interesting, critical article. Critiques past input/output research and calls for observationally grounded data. 1) Dependent variables should be evaluative and cathective; 2) Teachers' definitions of situation should be examined as well as students. What are "good pupils?" Is boredom related to institutional delays; does it create deviance? 3) Classroom roles.

Richmond, Kenneth W.
1972 The Literature of Education: A Critical Bibliography 1945-1970. London: Methuen. 206 pp.

This is a critical bibliography covering the literature of education since 1945. The author provides an introduction where he reviews the major traditions and innovations of the various examinations of education. He considers more specific advances in the commentaries prefacing each section. The sections are: Introduction, 1) Philosophy of Education, 2) Educational Theory, 3) Curriculum Study, 4) Educational Psychology, 5) History of Education, 6) Sociology of Education, 7) Educational Administration, 8) Comparative Education, Education in Developing Countries and Educational Planning, 9) The Economics of Education, 10) Educational Technology.

Rist, Ray C.
1970 Student social class and teacher expectations. Harvard Educational Review, 40(3), 411-451.

An observational study of one class of ghetto children during their kindergarten, first- and second-grade years. Discusses how kindergarten teacher placed children in reading groups reflecting the social class composition of the class, how these groups presisted and the way in which differential teacher behavior influenced children's achievement.

Ritterband, Paul, and Richard Silberstein
1973 Group disorders in the public schools. American Sociological Review, 38(4), 461.

Considers three explanations for group disorder: 1)random events, 2) exogenous causation, 3) system effects of the school. Author examined N.Y.C. Board records of police calls from school officials. Incidents were divided into "political" disorders (protests) and "non-political" disorders.

Robinson, W.P.
1975 Boredom at school. British Journal of Educational Psychology, 45(2), 141-152.

Survey of 4,618 children, aged 13-16, and teachers. Related boredom with class background, parental education and income, interest in school, teacher reports of student behavior, perception of teacher, etc.

Rosenthal, Robert, and Lenore Jacobsen
1968 Pygmalion in the Classroom: Teacher Expectation and Pupils' Intellectual Development. New York: Holt.

Empirical study in which teachers were told that a group of random elementary school children were "likely developers." Found that this experimental group made significant academic gains on the post test.

Ross, Sylvia, and Herbert Zimiles
1976 The differentiated child behavior observational system. Instructional Sciences, 5(4), 325-342.

DCB was used in five classrooms to study children aged five to eight. Groups were from open and traditional classes of both middle and low income students. Groups showed striking differences in amount of child interaction. Analysis of interaction content showed significantly more higher order cognitive statements and questions and more autonomous behavior in open classrooms.

Ryker, Millard J.; E. Carroll Rogers; and Paul Beaujard
1971 Six selected factors influencing educational achievement of children from broken homes. Education, 91(3), 200-211.

Investigated topic using child's age at time of breakup, sex, reason (desertion, death), density of family living space and parental wishes on school achievement. Findings indicate those age 5 or younger had high achievement, 66 percent. Boys were high achievers (even split for females). 72 percent of children from less crowded homes had higher achievement.

St. John, Nancy H.
1975 School Desegregation. Chichester: Wiley, 236 pp.

This book brings together and reviews all the research available on the effects of school or classroom racial composition on pupils, about 120 studies.

St. John, Nancy, and Ralph Lewis
1975 Race and social structure of the elementary classroom. Sociology of Education, 48(Summer), 346-368.

A study of peer group popularity. Found that it was strongly related to academic achievement. Variables considered include: sex, GPA, test

scores, years in school, race, SES, residential proximity, whether student is bussed, and percent white in classroom. Black girls were the least accepted group.

Sarri, Rosemary, and Robert D. Vinter
1969 Group work for the control of behavior problems in secondary schools. In David Street (ed.), Innovation in Mass Education. London and New York: John Wiley, 91-119.

"Malperformance" is interpreted as a form of social deviance which may be encouraged by the structure of classroom and/or school. Data which was gathered suggests that 1) malperformers under more stress at home; 2) they report more activities in conflict with school goals; 3) though well integrated into peer groups, they tend to mix with others having difficulties and rarely consult friends about school work.

Schmuck, Richard A., and Patricia A.
1975 Group Processes in the Classroom. Second Edition. Dubuque, Iowa: William C. Brown Co. 229 pp.

Designed for use in pre-service or in-service teacher training, it offers a social psychological perspective on classroom group process. Chapters on: 1) theoretical framework; 2) overview and history; 3)teacher expectations; 4) leadership; 5) attraction; 6) norms; 7) communication; 8)cohesiveness; 9) sequential stages of development; 10) school organization.

Schmuck, R.A., and M.B. Miles (Eds.)
1971 Organizational Development in Schools. Palo Alto: National Press Books. 264 pp.

a Reader comprising 11 previously unpublished papers on empirical aspects of the use of organization development in changing schools in the United States. An introduction by the editors discusses the nature of organizational intervention. The Introduction also has a 97-item bibliography. The eleven papers are: R.A. Schmuck, P. Rankel and D. Langmeyer, Using group problem-solving procedures; Bigelow, R.C., Changing classroom interaction through senior high school; C.T. McElvaney and M.B. Miles, Using survey feedback and consultants, D.G. Lake and D.M. Callahan, Entering and intervening in schools; M.R. Goodson and W.O. Hagerstrom, Using teams of change agents; M.A. Chesler and J.E. Lohman, Changing schools through student advocacy; R.A. Schmuck, Developing teams of organizational specialists; R.A. Schmuck and M.B. Miles, Needs and prospects.

Schmuck, Richard A.
1968 Helping teachers improve classroom group process. Journal of Applied Behavioral Science, 4(4), 401-436.

Three group experiments, aimed at improving classroom group process are reported. Teachers were target of this treatment. The experiment involving attendance at organizational development laboratory, including structured group exercises and small group discussions, was found to effect changes in teachers' classroom behavior.

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1962 Sociometric status and utilization of academic abilities. Merrill-Palmer Querterly, 8, 165-172.

Considers the link between classroom informal peer processes and pupil performance. The study specifies steps connecting social space factors, through life space factors, to individual performance to consider differential effects of two group structures: centralized and diffuse. Support was received for two hypotheses: 1)pupils are more accurate in estimating their status position on a centrally structured dimension than a diffused one; 2) pupils who are both more accurate and negatively placed on a dimension are lower utilizers of academic abilities than pupils who are accurate and positively placed.

Scott, C.C., and L.W. Anderson
1976 The relationship among instructional environments, student characteristics and student involvement in learning. Paper presented at Annual Meeting of the American Educational Research Association. 22 pp. (EDRS No. ED 137 291).

Parents were surveyed on the importance of affective teacher characteristics, and teachers were asked to evaluate colleagues' performances.

Seaver, W. Burleigh
1973 Effects of naturally induced teacher expectancies. Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 28(3), 333-342.

Teacher expectancy hypothesis was tested by obtaining achievement test scores for children who had older siblings who were either bright or dull and had same teacher. When compared with control children it was found that teacher expectancies were operant.

Sharp, Rachel, and Anthony Green
1975 Education and Social Control: A Study in Progressive Primary Education. Boston: Routledge and Kegan.

In a study of a British progressive primary school, the authors find that instead of promoting educational equality, the child-centered approach inadvertently but effectively socializes working-class children into working-class roles. They argue that no matter what the instructional format, the inequities which prevail in society will be reproduced in the classroom.

Sharp, John M., and Gregg M. Stasler
1977 The impact of "learning for mastery" instruction on classroom cohesion. Paper presented at 1977 AERA Annual Meeting. (EDRS No. ED 137 272).

Weak increases for three seventh-grade classrooms instructed by a mastery learning technique were found when compared with three conventional classes. Block ANOVA, triadic census (balance theory) and block modelling (role theory) analytic technqiues were used on repeated-measures sociometric rating data.

Spady, William
1973 The impact of schools on students. In Fred Kerlinger (Ed.), Review of Education 1973, Vol. 1. Itasca, Ill.: Peacock.

Critical review of research in the area.

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1974 The authority system of the school and student unrest. In C.W. Gordon (Ed.), Uses of the Sociology of Education. Chicago: National Society for the Study of Education, p. 36.

Elaborates on five functions of education: 1) instruction, 2) socialization, 3) custody-control (school legally responsible for its involuntary participants), 4) certification (diploma symbol of proficiency and twelve years of compliance, docility and patience), 5) selection (grading, tracking). Typology of student outcomes is presented: rebellion, protest, apathy, withdrawal.

Spaulding, R.L.
1973 The coping analysis schedule for educational settings (CASES). Paper presented at Annual Meeting of the American Educational Research Association, New Orleans, Feb. 1973. (EDRS No. ED 076 694).

CASES is designed to measure social development and coping skills of young children. Its use is described.

Spivak, G.
1973 The concept of behavioral effectiveness in the classroom. Paper presented at the meeting of the American Educational Research Association, New Orleans, Feb. 1977. 7 pp. (EDRS no. ED 080 180).

Aspects covered include: 1) which classroom behaviors relate to learning and how they are organized; 2) the significance of classroom behavior as the first thing that the teacher sees; 3) possibility that such behaviors reflect response to demands of the academic situation and therefore more sensitive to classroom adjustment than achievement.

Stebbins, Robert A.
1970 The meaning of disorderly behavior: teacher definitions of a classroom situation. Sociology of Education, 44(Spring, 217-236.

From field work data, author explores the various types of classroom behaviors which are defined as disorderly. Attention is given to in which situations these are construed as disorderly, why this conduct occurs, when/who is sanctioned. Concludes with discussion of the disorderly behavior set which teachers develop.

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1969 Studying the definition of the situation: theory and field research strategies. Canadian Review of Sociology and Anthropology, 6(4), 193-211.

Attempt is made to empirically measure "definition of stiuation." A field experiment in a classroom is used as an example.

Stensaasen, Svein
1970 Interstudent Attraction and Social Perception in the School Class. Oslo, Bergen, Tromso, Universitetsforlaget. 282 pp.

The present study is concerned with the interrelationship of interstudent feelings of attraction and social perception in the school class. The author begins in Part I by stating the problem and reviewing the literature relating to social interaction, interstudent attraction and social perception within the classroom. There follows the development of a conceptual framework for investigating this phenomena. Attention is given to exchange and equilibrium theories of attraction. A theory of cognitive balance (based upon Hieder's theory) is then outlined -- this serves as a theoretical underpinning of the empirical study. Part 3 comprises data on method. The subjects were 270 students aged 13 to 15 in eleven classes in a Norwegian School. Each provided sociometric data and responses to a Guess Who scale for assessing teacher approval-disapproval. Part 4 comprises the results of the study, with reference to 15 hypotheses derived in Part 1. The author concludes that the evidence tends to support understanding these aspects of classroom interaction. The volume concludes with an extensive bibliography.

Stinchcombe, Arthur L.
1968 Rebellion in a High School. Chicago: Quadrangle.

Three hypotheses are presented. 1) Rebellion is expressive alienation. It is not utilitarian, malicious and hedonistic. 2) Rebellion occurs when future status is not clearly related to present performance. 3) When symbols of formal school culture fail to provide satisfactory identification with role of adolescent, students identify with adult symbols and expressive alienation results.

Stubbs, Michael
1976 Language, Schools and Classrooms. London: Metheun, 128 pp.

Contemporary Sociology of Schools Series. Sociolinguistics, a la Bernstein, and its effect on classroom. A number of small studies of classroom language are described which illustrate the kind of messages conveyed by teachers to pupils in actual classrooms.

Stubbs, Michael, and Sara Delmont (Eds.)
1976a Explorations in Classroom Observation. London: Wiley. 221 pp.

Book's essays are divided into three parts. Pupil's eye views, Teacher-pupil interaction and classroom talk, and an applied study in which the methods and theories developed throughout the book are applied to the study of the implementation of new teaching methods. Based on notion that fault of educational research is neglect of direct observation classroom studies.

Thielens, W.
1977 Undergraduate definitions of learning from teachers. Sociology of Education, 50(3), 159-181.

Explores the place of student definitions of teacher-student interaction in shaping learning outcomes. Data from interviews indicates that students do not always saliently define classrooms as learning areas and that they can readily define interaction with instructors in terms which take no notice of the learning. Theoretical implications are examined.

Thompson, G. Brian
1972 Effects of cooperation and competition on pupil learning. Educational Research, 15(1), 28-36.

Review of empirical investigations on cooperation/competition over wide age and subject range. Evidence points toward increased learning when cooperative interaction associated with cooperative tasks. Also discusses the relationship between learning and cohesion, heterogeneity, ability and size of group.

Tjosvold, Dean, and Morris A. Okun
1976 Corrupting effects on unequal power: cognitive perspective-taking and cooperation. Paper presented at 84th Convention of APA (EDRS No. ED 137 661).

Experimental study in which ninety college students were assigned to dyads as high- or low-power partner. Other either consistently cooperated, competed or alternated. Low-power students tended to be more cooperative, interested in knowing other's intentions, attracted to other, and willing to facilitate the others desired outcome.

Travers, Robert M.W. (Ed.)
1973 Second Handbook of Research on Teaching. Chicago: Rand McNally, 1400 pp.

A collection of articles dealing with many aspects of teaching. Forty-two articles are included. Divided into four parts: Introduction, Methods and Techniques of Research and Development, Research on Special Problems of Teaching, Research on the Teaching of School Subjects. This book is a project of the American Educational Research Association.

Walker, Rob
1972 The sociology of education and life in school classrooms. International Review of Education, XVIII(1), 32-43.

Sociologists have largely ignored classroom events, and most forms of teacher-pupil interaction analysis and of lesson-content analysis have relied on atomistic, context and setting-free categories. The development of observational research techniques, however, together with more content-free evaluative procedures in English primary schools and the increasing part played by the sociology of education in teacher training, make possible a shift of sociological emphasis, away from the structure of the social system and towards study of the social process.

Waller, Willard
1932 The Sociology of Teaching. New York: Russell and Russell (1967 reprint by Wiley).

Classic in the area. Writing in the 1930's under the influence of Dewey and Thomas, Waller used participant observation and introspection in writing this book. It encompasses interactions at many different levels ranging from pupil-teacher and principal-teacher to school-community relations and societal functions. Schools are depicted as closed systems with their own student culture and distinctive dynamics. Insights have withstood test of time.

Warren, Donald I.
1970 Variations on the theme of primary groups: forms of social control within school staffs. Sociology of Education, 43(3), 288-310.

Data from eighteen urban elementary schools is used to analyze types of social control -- selective recruitment, selective expulsion, socialization and isolation. The first two are used in schools with staffs who share values, the third is important mechanism for heterogenous staffs who interact outside of school and the fourth is used among staff members who interact frequently on the job.

Weiss, Melford S., and Paula H. Weiss
1975 Taking another look at teaching: how lower-class children influence middle-class teachers. Paper presented at Annual Meeting of the American Anthropological Association. 17 pp. (EDRS No. ED 137 223).

Focuses on the process whereby lower class students influence their teachers. Two important changes were found: the acceptance of violence as a means of conflict resolution and increased tolerance of obscene language. Challenges some basic assumptions about nature of schooling and effectiveness of education as an instrument of social change.

West, Charles K., and Thomas H. Anderson
1976 The question of preponderant causation in teacher expectancy research. Review of Educational Research, 46(4), 613-630.

A critical review of literature in area.

Wicker, A.W.
1968 Undermanning, performances, and students' subjective experiences in behavior settings of large and small high schools. Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 10(3), 255-261.

Juniors from large and small high schools related their subjective experiences in extra-curricular activities. Comparisons between and within the schools revealed that experiences such as the feeling of being needed, feeling challenged, development of self-confidence are associated with "undermanned" activities. Most variation in subjective experience was attributable to student's not holding of a responsible position.

Williams, Richard C., et. al.
1974 Effecting organizational renewal in schools: a social systems perspective. I/D/E/A Reports on Schooling, McGraw-Hill: New York, New York, 138 pp.

Report of three studies of organizational renewal in eight elementary schools. Topics include the relationship of teacher role strain -- personal disposition vs. expectation, and the effect of values of administrators, teachers and parents on organizational renewal.

Wolcott, Harry (Ed.)
1975 Ethnography of Schooling. Human Organization, 34(2), 109-215.

Special issue of journal which includes ten papers dealing with various aspects of anthropology and education.

Wright, R.J.
1975 The affective and cognitive consequences of an open education elementary school. American Educational Research Journal, 4, 449-464.

Results indicate that traditional school students did better on measures of academic achievement. No difference was found on the six personality and cognitive variables: formal operations, locus of control, self-esteem, school anxiety, verbal and figural creativity. These variables were measured with standardized personality inventories.

Ziller, Robert C.
1976 Group dynamics over time. Paper presented at 84th Annual Convention of APA. (EDRS No. ED 137 634).

Differences between short- and long-term groups are evaluated. Three concepts are utilized in discussing long-term groups: continuity, attachment, and images of the future.

SELECTED IN-DEPTH REVIEWS

Source: Adams, Raymond S. Social relationships and the classroom. Education. (New Zealand) 1975, 4, 8-12.

1. Summary: This article attempts to integrate group dynamics research with educational research and conventional wisdom concerning teaching. Adams contends that there are two major theories of learning. First, the pupil learns because he/she absorbs the message voluntarily, or secondly, he does so involuntarily. Two different strategies of teaching are implied: a) the pupils response should be demanded (expectation); b) pupil response can be induced incidentally (modeling). Both strategies are analagous to the leadership types defined by Lewin, Lippit, and White. Expectation teaching can be either "authoritarian," the direct manifestation of expectations, or "democratic", the subtle manipulation of the situation to produce desired response. Modeling as a teaching strategy is essentially the same as Lewin, Lippit and White's "lasseiz-faire" leader. The author points out that group dynamics research done since Lewin, Lippit & White has not made a clear cut case for any of these three alternatives.

Adams suggests that the focus of educational research has been the individual learner for too long. Attention should be shifted to the group. In their research in group dynamics, Berelson & Steiner[1] formulated a list of fourteen maxims which have been empirically supported.

1. The small group strongly influences the behaviour of its members by setting and/or enforcing standards (norms) for proper behaviour by its members.

2. The more stable and cohesive a group is and the more attached the members are to it, the more influential it is in setting standards for their behaviour.

3. The closer an individual conforms to the accepted norms of the group the better liked he will be.

4. People in a group tend to agree with the opinions of people they like...they tend to think that the people they like agree with them, and that those they dislike do not.

5. The more interaction or overlap there is between related groups the more similar they become in norm and values...The less communication or interaction between them the more the tendency there is for conflict to arise between them.

6. When caught in cross-pressures between the norms of different groups of which he is simultaneously a member, the individual will suffer some emotional strain and will move to reduce or

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1. Berelson, B. & Steiner, G.A. Human Behavior: An inventory of scientific findings. New York: Harcourt, Brace and World, Inc., 1964.

eliminate it by resolving the conflict in the direction of the strongest felt of his group ties.

7. The less certain a group is about the right standards, the less control it can exercise over its members.

8. The more people associate with one another under conditions of equality the more they come to share values and norms and the more they come to like one another.

9. The more frequent the interaction among members of a group the more predictable the group's behaviour becomes, the more known it becomes to them and hence the more reliable it is as a guide to proper behaviour.

10. The less change there is in a group's membership the higher the group's morale will be.

11. If the small group's activities are imposed from outside, the norms set by the group are likely to be limited in character; if they are determined from within, they are more likely to take on the 'character' of ideal goals, to be constantly enlarged and striven for.

12. New members of a small group are likely to feel inferior to established members.

13. But the deviant members of a group are more likely to change their behaviour to meet the standards of the modal members than the other way around.

14. The response of a group to deviation from its norms is, first, discussion and persuasion to bring the deviating members into line, second, disapproval of the deviants, third, lowering rating for the deviants, and fourth, expulsion or induced resignation.

Following a discussion of the inconsistent results of educational research on classroom organization, Adams sets forth a series of five group dynamic propositions concerning the relationship between group organization and affective climate.

1. The more highly differentiated and more unstable the social setting, the less salient (significant) it will be (to the members).

2. Supervisory style is a function of the dependency expectations of the membership as well as of norms of authority.

3. Short truncated work cycles, fractionated work, little control over job content by the worker, combined with disciplined time

pressure produced low job satisfaction and low morale.

4. The closer the requirements of organisational membership are to the member's interests, training, ambition, goals or self-image generally, the better he likes the organisation and the more likely he is to stay in it.

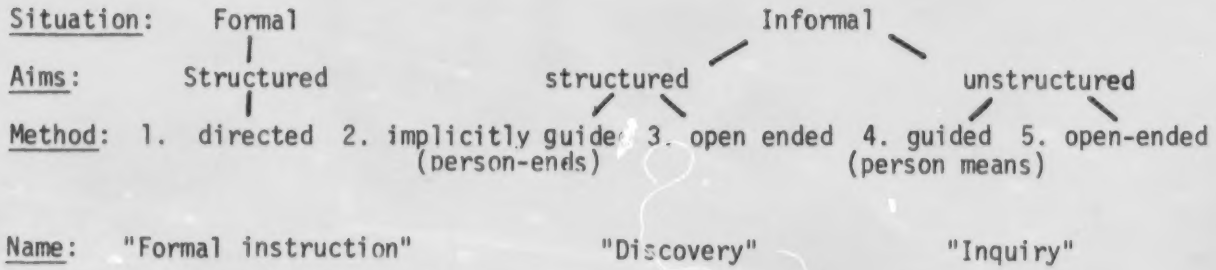
5. Small groups tend toward uniformity in attitudes and achievements in values and behavioural norms-that is, in the right way to think and act; the more frequent the personal interaction among the members is, the more group interaction is based on equality, the more directly and fully the members participate in the determination of group standards.

--Reviewed by Patricia Green

Source: Adelman, Clem and Walker, Rob. Developing pictures for other frames: Action research and case study. In Gabriel Chanan and Sarah Delamont (Eds.), Frontiers of classroom research. Windsor: NFER Publishing, 1975.

1. Summary: This article is primarily concerned with reporting research techniques the authors are currently using in studying open classrooms.

2. Major implications for a definition of teaching: Although they do not define teaching, the authors present their conceptual map of pedagogies:


Situation: Formal Informal
Aims: Structured structured unstructured
Method: 1. directed 2. implicitly guide (person-ends) 3. open ended 4. guided (person means) 5. open-ended
Name: "Formal instruction" "Discovery" "Inquiry"

The formal/informal distinction refers to how the source of authoritative knowledge is distributed, not to the social or spatial organization of students.

3. Major implications for studying teaching: The research uses several techniques.

   A) "Triagulation" is used to discover the participant's perception of the situation. Lessons were recorded and selections played back to pupils and teachers. They were then asked "What did you understand the pupil/teacher to mean by that?" In this way misunderstandings and miscommunication were documented as well as finding the degree of common meaning which existed. It also checked the evaluation of the observer of certain events by correcting him/her and providing him/her with counter-examples.

   B) Tape-slide recordings of "a day in the life of" supervisory personnel are being made to discover what basis of observation they have. This is coupled with interviews designed to elicit the criteria they use in making evaluations and decisions.

   C) Life histories of teachers are being collected.

   D) Case studies of events and ideas are being made (e.g., curriculum project training conferences and "The Nuffield Approach" to science teaching)

   E) "Condensed field work" procedures are being experimented with

to find a way of reducing observation time for a classroom case study to one-week. (Procedures are not mentioned).

4. Categories: See #2

5. The nine elements: This is a report on methodology and does not discuss variables or underlying concepts.

--Reviewed by Patricia Green

Source: Bates, R.J. Classroom location, learning and status. New Zealand Journal of Educational Studies, 1973, 8(2), 142-153.

1. Summary: The correlations between four factors were studied: frequency of pupil participation, pupil's spatial location, pupil sociometric statuses - both "friendship" and "academic," and pupil achievement. Seven hypotheses, derived from previous research, were tested:

   Hypothesis 1: The closer the pupil location approaches the front centre of the room the higher the rates of participation.

   Hypothesis 2: The closer the pupil location approaches the front centre of the room the higher the level of achievement.

   Hypothesis 3: The higher the rate of participation the higher the level of achievement.

   Hypothesis 4: The higher the rate of participation the higher the friendship status of pupils.

   Hypothesis 5: The higher the level of achievement the higher the friendship status of pupils.

   Hypothesis 6: The higher the rate of participation the higher the academic status.

   Hypothesis 7: The higher the level of achievement the higher the academic status.

   None of the hypotheses were supported.

2. Major implications for a definition of teaching: This is a narrowly focused piece of research; there are no hints of the author's own definition of teaching other than the variables chosen for investigation.

3. Major implications for studying teaching: Observation instruments and tape recorders were used (see #6c).

4. Categories: See #6c.

5. The nine elements:

   4) Role: Role encompasses student academic and friendship status in the peer group.

   6) Place: Place encompasses spatial arrangement of students.

   Participation and achievement are outcomes of the nine elements, although participation might be antecedent to achievement.

6. Description of the study:

a) Behavior: Natural setting.

b) Setting: Third and fourth form classrooms were observed. The third was high stream and the fourth form was low stream.

c) Treatment: Twelve sessions were observed: two English classes, two Science lessons and two Social Studies lessons in each form. All lessons were held in the same classroom and for each subject the teacher was the same for all sessions (3 teachers).

d) Data collection: Sessions were tape recorded with an observer present to note the location of students on a grid. Pupil participation was operationalized as frequency of participation. The number of interactions was calculated for (1) individual pupils irrespective of location and (2) location irrespective of pupil occupant. Location was noted on a matrix representing the classroom seating pattern. Pupil sociometric status was gathered through a student questionnaire which asked for friendship choices, leadership choices, and relative academic status of any three classmates. Achievement was taken from grades during the term the study occurred.

e) Data analysis: Product-moment correlations were calculated.

--Reviewed by Patricia Green

Source: Bennett, N. Teaching styles and pupil progress. Cambridge: Harvard University Press, 1976.

1. Summary: This book reports the results of a large study conducted to assess the relative impact of "informal" and "formal" teaching methods on pupil personality and academic progress. While it is impossible to catalogue the findings here, a few of the more suprising are worth noting.

   A. A cluster analysis of teacher questionnaires resulted in a typology of twelve teaching styles ranging along a continuum from informal to formal. The validity of this typology was determined by examining the responses of observers and primary school advisors to the same questionnaire, and by a content analysis of student essays entitled "What I did at school yesterday." Only nine percent of the teachers were found to have completely adopted informal teaching styles. Teachers were also questioned regarding teaching aims and opinions on educational issues and teaching methods.

   B. Pupil progress was analyzed by teaching style, sex, and initial ability. Pupils taught by formal teaching methods excelled; differences between informal and formal styles were significant in Reading, Math, and English. The magnitude of the effect varied by sex and ability in all three subjects, but formal students were always found to be ahead. No differences were found in the creativity of the two types of students although students of mixed teaching styles performed slightly below their formal and informal counterparts.

   C. The only relationship discovered between teaching style and pupil personality was in student motivation and anxiety. In formal classrooms, motivation and anxiety both remained constant. In informal classrooms, both increased over the year, while in mixed classrooms, both motivation and anxiety decreased. No differences were found between classrooms in regards to the self-esteem of students. Bennett does note that a slightly more complex social structure exists in informal classrooms.

   D. The effect of teaching style was stronger than the effect of pupil personality in relation to academic attainment and to classroom behavior. Compared to students in formal classrooms, those in informal settings spent less time working, engaged in more work-related and social interactions with peers, interacted less with teachers, fidgeted less, moved about the classroom more, and engaged in more negative behaviors. Some interaction effects with pupil personality are reported by Bennett.

2. Major implications for a definition of teaching: When investigating teaching methods, the researchers focused on six major areas. Teachers were questioned regarding classroom management and organization, teacher

control and sanctions, curriculum content and planning, instructional strategies, motivational techniques, and assessment procedures. These concerns would seem to be the relevant dimensions of teaching for the author.

3. Major implications for studying teaching: A variety of methods were used including questionnaires to students and teachers, classroom observation, standardized pre- and post-tests of achievement and non-standardized tests of creative writing ability.

4. Categories: The most interesting categories used by the author were the areas of teaching outlined in #2.

5. The nine elements: Bennett manages to include most of these elements in this study. Notable exclusions are "other human elements," "communication," and "time."

6. Description of the study: The typology of teaching styles was based on results of a questionnaire completed by all primary teachers in 871 primary schools in the Lancashire-Cumbria region of England. The survey had an 88% response rate.

Thirty-seven teachers were then selected on the basis of teaching style for intensive study. This involved additional questionnaire administration for both teachers and pupils, standardized tests in Reading, Math and English, creativity tests, content analysis of student essays, and classroom observations. A variety of statistical procedures were used in data analysis.

--Reviewed by Patricia Green

Source: Bidwell, Charles. Students and schools: Some observations on client trust in client-serving organizations. In Mark Lefton and William Rosengren (Eds.), Organizations and clients. Columbus: Charles E. Merrill, 1970.

1. Summary: When the school is compared with other client-serving organizations, many impediments to smooth teacher-pupil relations become apparent. The classic professional-client relationships is voluntary, dyadic, and centered on the exchange of service for fee. Teacher-pupil relationships, in constrast, are involuntary, collective, and the service is a "welfare good." This has profound implications for client-trust, which is generally the glue of client-professional relations.

   The intensity and scope of a client's trust in the services rendered by the professional has four bases:

   A) The prestige of the organization.

   B) The reputation of the professional.

   C) The level of client sophistication concerning the technical competence of the professional.

   D) The degree to which the client perceives his/her needs as critical.

   For most students, the prestige of the school and reputation of teacher are irrelevant. The public school system offers the child no choice in either. Regardless of the students' estimation of the teacher's competence or the teacher's evaluation of a student's motivation, there is no exit for either party. Hence, the teacher must rely on the students' "good-will" while trying to convince them that the knowledge being presented in the classroom is absolutely vital to their future.

   The problem of student trust is further aggravated by the fact that teachers are not directly accountable to their students. Evaluation and direction of the teacher is the job of the school and concerned parents.

   This potential failure of student trust affects the expressive socialization and orientation of pupils. The intensity and scope of trust must be far greater for this than is necessary for instrumental purposes.

2. Major implications for a definition of teaching: Teaching is means of imparting instrumental and moral knowledge. The former is difficult and the latter is impossible in the absence of student trust. The first task of teacher is to engender the trust of their students.

5. The nine elements: Student trust does not seem to fit well with any of the nine elements. It is not a fixed student characteristic nor does

it necessarily vary systematically with role. Yet it is not an outcome variable. I would hesitate to classify it in any neat category.

--Reviewed by Patricia Green

Source: Bloom, B. S. Time and learning. American Psychologist, 1974, 29(9), 680-688.

1. Summary: The author explores what he considers the neglected variable in educational research: time. Bloom contends that time, specifically "time on task" is a central variable in school learning. Individual learning rates vary as much as 5:1, but classroom instruction does not take account of this fact. The author points out that aptitude tests are currently used to predict the level of learning given a fixed amount of time. Bloom suggests that such tests be used as predictors of the time necessary for individual students to achieve a fixed level of learning.

   The author cites data from his research which suggest that differences in individual learning rates decrease given sequential mastery learning and that the individual "time on task" increases as the student progresses. Bloom suggests that these facts result from three characteristics of mastery learning: "cognitive entry behaviors," or the fact that the previous unit has been completely mastered; "affective entry behaviors," or the fact that student confidence and interest increases as units are mastered; and "quality of instruction," or the feedback-correction cycle present in mastery learning. The correlations between these three variables and "achievement" are approximately .85.

2. Major implications for a definition of teaching: Bloom does not discuss the mechanics necessary for a teacher to produce mastery learning. He is concerned primarily with individual learning. By implication, teaching is setting achievement standards, assigning tasks, providing feedback, and supplying help where needed.

4. Categories: See #1.

5. The nine elements: Bloom's work fits into this conceptualization as a discussion of "Task" rather than of "Time." The major relationship within this category would be between the achievement of the task and the effects, both cognitive and affective, of this achievement upon the student.

6. Description of the study: This is not a research report although Bloom does cite some of his findings as examples.

--Reviewed by Patricia Green

Source: Boocock, S. The school as a social environment: Social organization and micro-social processes in education. Sociology of Education, 1975, 46(1), 15-50.

1. Summary: This article is divided into four major sections: (a) a review of some of the major theoretical contributions to the sociology of education; (b) a discussion of relevant research findings; (c) an examination of four existing schools which represent attempts at reform; and (d) an agenda for future research.

   A. Boocock considers Emile Durkheim to be the real father of the sociology of education. For Durkheim, schools are the major means by which society recreates itself. It is the production of "social beings," those who will embody the "system of ideas, sentiments, and practices which express in us not our personality, but the group or different groups of which we are a part" (16), which is the major function of school. It is the acculturated teacher's duty to civilize the culturally savage pupil. Any failure of schools to accomplish this task can be seen as a failure of society: the school is the community in the microcosm.

   Weber was interested in studying schools as formal organizations and as mechanisms for status attainment. He also pointed out that with increased rationalization and industrialization of the larger society, the goals of formal education shifted from an emphasis on cultivation to an emphasis on expertise.

   Willard Waller viewed the school primarily as a social organism characterized by internal, irreconcilable conflict between teacher and pupil. This underlying tension permeates the environment, making social control a very real problem.

   Jackson argued that "routine" is the epitome of classroom life. Control problems are resolved through ritualization and routinization. The successful student is the one who can develop patience and various other coping strategies.

   B. Boocock states that the over-arching similarity in these pictures of schooling is the central importance of role structure. Current research is discussed which supports the characterizations of the passivity of the student role in conventional schools. Teachers' and principals' role conflicts are also examined as well as the ambiguous roles of other school personnel. The author argues that the reward structure associated with these roles have many nonfunctional aspects. Student rewards are based upon grades, which result from the divisive and competitive structures of

most evaluation procedures, and the student's own pliability and/or docility. Teacher rewards are largely intangible except for a salary which depends very little on his or her classroom performance.

C. Some attempt at restructuring education is being made Open classrooms are attempts to "break up the ritualistic, cyclic quality of classroom life and make the role of the student more active and autonomous" (40). Another project cited is a boys' training school in which behavior modification techniques have supplanted the traditional reward structure. Schools without walls and collective settlement schools (kibbutzim) are efforts toward the reintegration of school and community.

D. The author suggests that future research be geared toward more precise specification of the relationship among components already recognized, and that increased attention should be given to classrooms, peer groups, and the long range impact of in-school experience.

2. Major implications for a definition of teaching: Boocock reports other authors' definitions of teaching. Waller and Jackson emphasize the primacy of social control. Weber and Durkheim emphasize the transmission of the cultural values of the society outside the school.

3. Major implications for studying teaching: See #1(D).

5. The nine elements: This paper primarily explores the relationship among "roles." The article suggests that these roles are, to a large extent, determined by the expectations and values of the larger society. This would imply that an attempt to restructure these roles is likely to do more than merely alter the climate of the classroom.

--Reviewed by Patricia Green

Source: Borgatta, Edgar and Bales, R.F. Task and accumulation of experience as factors in the interaction of small groups. Sociometry, 1953, 16, 239-259.

1. Summary: This is a report of socio-psychological experiments designed to measure the effect of task experience when group membership is constant and when membership is manipulated. Results showed that developmental trends in interaction under the two conditions were markedly different. In groups with fixed membership there was an increase, over time, in socio-emotional expression and a decrease in task orientation. In the groups which had a new membership at each session, the expression of positive and negative reactions was constricted, even concerning neutral task-related agreements and disagreements. The task orientation in these groups was high in all sessions, showing no decline. Tension was also considerably greater than in fixed-number groups.

2. Major implications for studying teaching: The article might imply that it is extremely important to look at group composition during activities. The way in which children are assigned to task groups may effect the affective climate and development of peer relationships as well as the probability of task-completion.

6. Description of the study:

   a) Behavior: The behavior of 3 person groups of U.S. Air Force personnel and Harvard undergraduates was observed. Subjects were told they were participating in a role-playing experiment.

   b) Setting: Laboratory-type settings were used in both cases although the Air Force experiment was conducted on the base.

   c) Treatment: 168 Air Force men were assigned to four group sessions each. At each session group members were changed but the task remained the same. The Harvard groups' members were identical at each session.

   d) Data collection: Behaviors were coded using Bales' observation method. Incidence of 12 behaviors was noted:

      1. Shows solidarity
      2. Shows tension release
      3. Agrees
      4. Gives suggestion
      5. Gives opinion
      6. Gives orientation
      7. Asks for orientation
      8. Asks for opinion
      9. Asks for suggestion
      10. Disagrees
      11. Shows tension
      12. Shows antagonism

--Reviewed by Patricia Green

Source: Bossert, S. T. Classroom structure and peer associations. Unpublished manuscript, University of Michigan and National Institute of Education, 1977.

1. Summary: This paper examines the effect of classroom task and reward structure on the patterns of peer friendships within the elementary classroom. Two classrooms of third graders were observed over the course of one year. The following year, the same groups of students were observed in fourth grade classrooms. It was found that children in recitation classrooms formed stable friendships on the basis of similar academic status. In multi-task classrooms, friendship ties were more fluid and were not academically stratified. The author suggests that these findings may be explained by examining the nature and the reward structure of different types of instructional organization.

   During recitation, the academic performance of pupils is public and comparable. Students have the opportunity to assess their peers' performance and the teacher's reaction to it. Also, opportunities to demonstrate knowledge are finite. Children must compete to be called on by the teacher. "When another pupil gives the correct answer, a child cannot show that he also knew the answer for that question" (10). This competition leads to the development of academically homogenous support groups. Membership in these groups, in turn, becomes a basis for the distribution of special classroom privileges since work groups complete assigned tasks at varied rates. This reward structure reinforces the stability of stratified peer groups.

   In contrast, academic performance is not as visible in multi-task classrooms. Pupils are less aware of the academic status of their peers and are more likely to form work groups based on common interests. As these interests fluctuate, so do the friendship groupings in the class. In the research cited here, 74% of all possible same-sex dyads existed in this type of multi-task classroom. In the recitation classroom, the comparable figure was 40%. Under these conditions, achievement becomes topically defined and carries somewhat less prestige.

   Observations of these same children in fourth grade classrooms confirmed that these patterns of peer group association were the result of instructional organization. Children who had been in the multi-task classroom the previous year became much more conscious of academic performance of peers when placed in a fourth-grade recitation class. Likewise, the tight academic cliques of the third grade recitation class dissolved in the fourth-grade multi-task classroom. These shifts were noted by counselors and parents as well as peers.

2. Major implications for a definition of teaching: This article implies that decisions regarding teaching method and classroom organization have important social consequences for students. In structuring the classroom environment, teachers profoundly affect the student's personal definitions of the situation. Even the meaning of friendship can be dramatically altered. With such findings in mind, teaching can be considered the

structuring of the environment in which students will exist.

3. Major implications for studying teaching: The research reported here utilized ethnographic observation quite successfully.

4. Categories: Three types of classroom task activities are reported. Recitation "involves the whole class or a large group of children in a single task: the children listen to the teacher, raise their hands when a question is asked, wait to be recognized and give an answer" (4). Class-tasks are "worksheets, tests, or any other tasks assigned to the entire class" (4). Multi-task organization involves independent or small group work on a variety of activities simultaneously.

5. The nine elements: The article explores the relationship between Task and pupil friendship patterns.

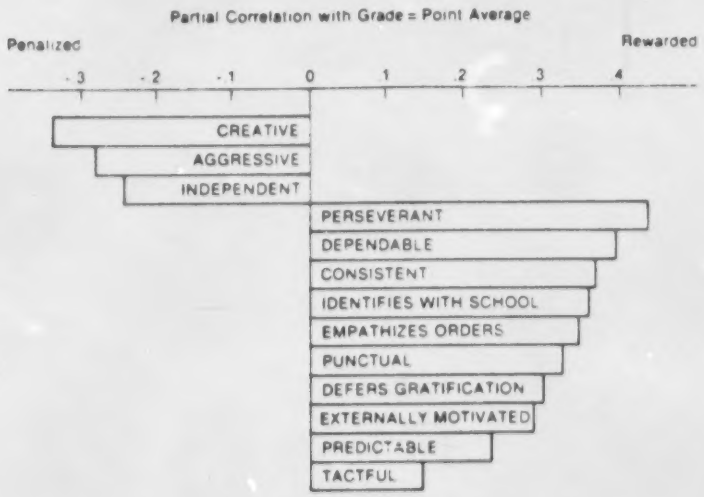
6. Description of the study: Two third grade classrooms in a university operated elementary school were observed during the first year of the study. The second year, two fourth grade classrooms were observed. All classrooms contained a mixture of high and low achieving students as well as students who were behavior problems. Students were primarily upper-middle class and most had IQ's in the range of 110-145. Detailed field notes were taken and then coded and cross-tabulated.

--Reviewed by Patricia Green

Source: Bowles, Samuel and Gintis, Herbert. Schooling in capitalist america. New York: Basic Books, 1976.

1. Summary: The major focus of this book is the relationship of society and education. The theoretical perspective of the authors can be described as pseudo-Marxist. Chapter 5, "Education and Personal Development: The Long Shadow of Work" is useful because of its investigation of non-cognitive outcomes of schooling.

   Grade point averages were correlated with sixteen personality traits in a sample of high school students. A cognitive score was also calculated by obtaining SAT and IQ scores from the school records. The authors found that the personality traits were almost as good a predictor of GPA as were cognitive scores (multiple correlation coefficients of .63 and .77 respectively). Even more interesting is the pattern of contribution of personality traits to GPA when the effect of cognitive ability is removed:



   These results are compared with a previous researcher's study of the personality traits associated with being labelled a "good worker" in the factory. Almost the identical distribution of personality traits is found to correlate with factory workers' approval by supervisor.

   Bowles and Gintis see this as support for their argument that the major function of the school is to reproduce the class structure.

2. Major implications for a definition of teaching: Two aspects of teaching are mentioned: imparting the cognitive and/or technical skills necessary for the workplace, and rewarding the characteristics of subordination which will render students alienated and fragmented

in group consciousness. The authors note that these aims are less salient in higher levels of education and in schools of higher socio-economic status.

5. The nine elements: This research is focused on outcomes and not on elements within the classroom which produce them.

6. Description of the study: Data was gathered on 247 high school seniors from school records and a personality inventory developed by Edwards. Multiple regression was used to analyze the data.

--Reviewed by Patricia Green

Source: Boydell, D. Pupil behavior in junior classrooms. British Journal of Educational Psychology, 1975, 45, 122-129.

1. Summary: The nature of pupil behaviors in informal classrooms was examined using a fixed scale observation instrument. The emphasis here is on providing a descriptive picture of pupils' behaviors during lessons. Observational data reveal that 12% of the time students were interacting with adults, 31% of the time students were engaged in interaction with other pupils, and 58% of the time students were not engaged in any interaction. These figures are then broken down into more specific behavior categories.

   A cross tabulation is presented analyzing the association between the two most common situations for pupils (interaction with pupils and no interaction) and involvement in the task. The average of classroom percentages are:

	Involved	Not Involved	Waiting for Teacher	Other Behaviors
Interacting	47%	28%	1%	24%
Not-Interacting	75%	10%	6%	9%
Spearman rho =	.26	.41		(categories total 100%)

2. Major implications for a definition of teaching: The focus here is solely on pupils. No attempt is made to define teaching.

3. Major implications for studying teaching: The author employed Fixed Scale observation using the PROSE (Personal Record of School Experiences) instrument.

5. The nine elements: The only relationship investigated by the author is the one between task involvement and interaction. Tasks are not categorized according to their type or nature.

6. Description of the study: Six unstreamed, informal junior classrooms were observed. Data analysis is limited to frequency distributions, a scattering of correlation coefficients, and the one cross tabulation. (It would seem that this cross-tabulation would have been more enlightening had the percentages been computed in the other direction, within task involvement categories.)

--Reviewed by Patricia Green

Source: Clark, David B. The academic, the interpersonal and the role of the teacher in social and moral education. Journal of Moral Education, 1976, 5(2), 145-157.

1. Summary: The author argues that the locus of authority must shift from teacher to student if moral learning and maturity are to be facilitated. A typology of possible teaching situations is presented.

TYPE OF LEARNING

LOCUS OF CONTROL	ACADEMIC	INTERPERSONAL
TEACHER	A	B
STUDENT	C	D

Situations A and B are the most prevalent due to teacher-pupil ratios. This condition of dependency fosters immaturity which is evidenced by passivity, irresponsibility, and/or violence. Situation C is difficult since the assimilation of subject content is the dominant goal. Situation D is the most misunderstood. It does not mean directly fostering the growth of social awareness but rather on learning through the primary group. This type of learning can occur within "honest" teacher-pupil or adult-pupil relationships or within pupil-pupil relationships.

2. Major implications for a definition of teaching: In situations C and D, the teacher is primarily a boundary keeper. The teacher may outline broad areas of endeavor but is essentially non-directive. Interactions with students should be honest and egalitarian, true conversations involving the exchange of shared experiences.

4. Categories: Author makes minimal use of definitions; see typology outlined in #1.

5. The nine elements:

   1. Students: Student is rarely used by Clark in the singular. He seems to imply that ideally students should be transformed into a group or cohort. "Interest homogeneity" and the degree to which they are a collective are the only student characteristics of concern to the author.

   2. Teachers: Teacher philosophy, especially the willingness to confer authority upon students, is the only teacher characteristic mentioned by the author.

   3. Other human elements: These individuals, outside adults, are an important resource for students if they are willing to engage in "true conversation".

4. Role: Role is never used by Clark, however he does propose that students' degree of control and authority be increased.

The author's prescription of true conversation and exchange does not seem to fit nicely under any heading. It would refer to an element describing interaction, especially the effect of the balance of power in an exchange between teacher and pupil.

--Reviewed by Patricia Green

Source: Deal, T. E. An organizational explanation of the failure of alternative secondary schools. Educational Researcher, 1975, 4(4), 10-16.

1. Summary: This article provides a thoughtful discussion of the experiences of two alternative secondary schools during their first year of existence. Three developmental stages of alternative schools were observed. The first stage, which lasted from two to four weeks, was characterized as euphoric by students and teachers. Removal of old barriers to learning (see #4) was seen to be sufficient to create a viable learning environment. This stage was suceeded by a period of "psychic upheaval" manifested in excessive emotional outbursts and erratic behavior. Deal hypothesizes that this stage occurs as a "normless, listless, confused reaction to the lack of formal feedback for the learning activities of the first stage." Since the schools existed in a relatively hostile environment, students and staff were forced to rely on introspection and self-evaluation for evidence of academic progress. It is suggested that this caused the undue emotional trauma. In such a situation, it became common to "reward disturbed students by giving them feedback about their personal difficulties." The situation stabilized into a third stage of "Dissatisfaction." The lack of any routinization, the diverse instructional activities, and the lack of an efficient, formalized decision-making apparatus in a problem-ridden organization made the position of both students and teachers untenable. Alternative resolutions to this situation were dissolution through interaction, return to conventional modes of teaching and learning, or organizational compromise.

   Deal maintains that any highly individualistic or diffuse structure must be well integrated and formalized. This entails the division of labor, definition of roles, specification of roles, regularization of evaluation processes, and the development of boundary-maintenance activities. While students may maintain the right of making their own final decisions, the teacher's role must be expanded to include the right to design alternatives and to guide the curriculum. In essence, some formal bargaining apparatus must be instituted.

2. Major implications for a definition of teaching: Teaching is considered something more than existing purely as a resource person and is something less than rigidly prescribing student learning and behavior. Deal implies that students cannot function effectively without feedback and that this may be the key aspect of a teacher's role. In addition, some formal channels must be instituted and some degree of teacher autonomy granted for a teacher to be effective.

3. Major implications for studying teaching: The author utilized a participation and interviewing methodology but only took notes sporadically.

4. Categories: "Alternative schools" are defined as being innovative along six dimensions of learning. The author suggests the following

dimensions to be relevant:

TABLE 1
Differences between Conventional and Alternative Secondary Schools on Six Important Dimensions of Learning

Learning Dimensions	Conventional Secondary Schools	Alternative Secondary Schools
Who is involved in the learning process (roles)	Certificated teachers, counselors, administrators, students. All have relatively well-defined role expectations.	Teachers, administrators, parents, community members, students—anyone who has something to teach. Certification requirements relaxed; role distinctions blurred.
What is learned (curriculum)	State- or district-prescribed curriculum. Knowledge divided into subject areas. Special programs for non-college-bound or other "special" students. Emphasis on cognitive learning.	Wide variation in educational substance, dictated largely by interest of students; may encompass areas usually taught in school but also extends into many other areas. Emphasis on affective learning.
Why it is learned (authority)	Extrinsic motivation; learning to fulfill requirements, to pass tests. Authority vested in teacher: "do what you are told." Teachers directive.	Intrinsic motivation, learning because of interest or need to know, to learn a skill or to acquire knowledge. Authority vested in students. Student choice.
How it is learned (methods)	Emphasis on reading, writing, listening; group presentation; lecture by teacher common; some audio-visual aids; some discussion.	Methods vary as widely as curriculum; reading, writing, listening not excluded, but emphasis on doing and experiencing; all senses involved.
Where learning takes place (location)	Learning takes place on campus, in classroom. Some field trips, but these are exceptional.	Wide variation in location of learning: private homes, beach, forest, libraries, businesses. Instruction in formal classroom is the exception rather than the rule.
When learning takes place	Instruction typically between hours of 8 and 4; day segmented into periods or modules.	Learning takes place anytime, depending on nature of learning task; infrequent scheduling, no time segmentation.

(from Deal, 1975)

5. The nine elements: Organizational roles are the main focus in this article. The major prerequisite for the success of alternative classrooms is that organizational roles be well defined. This does not mean that all authority must be vested in the teacher or the students, only that spheres of authority and autonomy and channels of communication, evaluation and negotiation be formalized.

6. Description of the study: The author observed two alternative schools. One was a suburban public school serving 30 white, middle class secondary students who were alienated from conventional public school. The second, an offshoot of a wealthy private secondary school, was an urban residential school serving twelve students each semester. Data from the research are not presented in a systematic or through analysis, but as anecdotal illustrations of the major stages in the schools' histories.

--Reviewed by Patricia Green

Source: Dreisson, J.J. and Pyfer, J. N. An unconventional setting for a conventional occasion: A case study of an experimental adult education program. Sociology of Education, 1975, 48, 111-125.

1. Summary: An experimental adult basic education (ABE) program which was carried out in student homes was observed. Although the formal educational goals were the same as in conventional ABE programs, marked differences in teacher-pupil relations and task structure arose. The authors explore the way in which the home settings were responsible for these changes.

   Conventional activities occurring in unconventional settings heightened participants' awareness of the setting. Certain behaviors, even though unnecessary to the task, occur because they are seen as appropriate to the setting. Thus informal and diverse talk between teachers, pupils and their families became a regular part of the home sessions.

   Settings also have roles associated with them. Thus the student was host as well as pupil and the teacher took on the additional role of guest. Students provided coffee and snacks to appreciative teacher-guests. In addition the host was responsible for the timing of breaks, the determination of where the lesson would actually occur, the physical arrangement of the "classroom," and often, the duration of the lesson.

   This represented a fundamental shift in conventional teacher-pupil authority relations. The fact that the student controlled the setting necessitated increased negotiation and exchange between teacher and student. In practice, this meant that the sequence of subjects taught was often negotiated and that traditional textbooks were often abandoned in favor of materials preferred by the student, although the teacher retained ultimate authority over subject matter. The increased informal exchanges often led to a more nearly reciprocal learning dialogue. Teachers were observed soliciting advice from their students and, in one case, the teacher became the student's pupil in an informal sewing lesson.

   The authors note in summary that the participants' awareness of the setting's impact was heightened by the fact that it was an unconventional setting for academic instruction.

2. Major implications for a definition of teaching: Teaching is viewed as information flow. The extent to which this flow is reciprocal, the role definitions of teacher and learner, and even the determination of continuity, timing and subject matter content, are functions of the setting and are not inherently part of teaching.

3. Major implications for studying teaching: The research methodology employed observation, interviewing, diaries kept by the investigator, and the taking of topical life histories.

5. The nine elements: The authors clearly contend that "setting," the physical location and arrangement of the learning environment, and "task"

are distinct elements. Physical locations have associated symbolic meanings. Thus the phenomenological definitions of the location are different among the incumbents of various roles. In addition, these phenomonological definitions of the location determine which actors will assume certain roles. "Setting roles" must be integrated with "task roles." This integration and renegotiation of roles can affect many other elements of teaching: timing, educational materials, task, standards and sanctions, and the structure of opportunities to communicate.

6. Description of the study: The investigators observed twenty-five lessons over the course of nine months. The entire staff of the project was interviewed at least three times during the year, and 93 out of 208 students were interviewed. Teachers submitted edited, topical life histories for each student. To supplement formal field notes, researchers also kept field diaries which included personal impressions and topics for further investigation. The authors do not present a quantitative analysis of their data, but frequently cite examples from field notes and interviews.

--Reviewed by Patricia Green

Source: Geer, Blanche. Teaching. In Cosin, B.R., R. Dale, G. Easlund, and D.F. Swift (Eds.), School and society: A sociological reader. Cambridge, Mass: MIT Press, 1971

2. Major implications for a definition of teaching: Teaching is not just the imparting of knowledge. It is an exchange relationship and an ongoing process between superordinate-subordinate and is thus laden with conflict. With this perspective conflict-reduction becomes the primary task for the teacher.

1. Summary: After presenting the above argument, Geer discusses conflict-reduction techniques used in teaching both inside and outside the classroom. Three ways of reducing the conflict inherent in teaching are commonly found outside the school. The term "teaching" itself increases tension. Hence, the imparting of knowledge is termed "teaching" is real world situations only in cases in which a reciprical exchange among equals occurs: "I'll teach you to swim if you teach me to...." Reciprocity in teaching is implied to be the preferred type of conflict-reduction in real world teaching situations. When reciprocity is not possible between colleagues, the identical teaching task may be termed "helping out" or "lending a hand." If it is a high status person seeking knowledge, the teacher is labelled a "consultant" and deprived of control over learning and of the opportunity to evaluate it.

Reciprocity, terminology and non-evaluation are seldom used in schools as strategies to mitigate conflict. This is, in part, due to the unique constellation of advantages possessed by the two parties:

Teachers	Students
A. Pupils are cut off from the rest of their world.	A. Parents are possible allies.
B. Teachers have allies within the school-other teachers, principal.	B. Overt physical force is not allowed.
C. Methods of control and evaluation receive institutional support in the record keeping administration.	C. Students possess strength in number.
D. Teachers are adults dealing with children.	D. Strength in number is enhanced by the fact that the "one vs. many" forces the teacher to treat the class as a unit to some extent. If this is not counteracted by other strategies, group cohesion will grow to enormous proportions.
E. Teacher's claim to superior knowledge is legitimated by school and state through licensing. Legitimacy rests on public consensus, not dyadic agreement between teacher and pupil.	

This distribution of resources has lead to three conflict-reduction strategies. In the first place, the teacher may create conflict among students by fostering competition, thus diverting the pupils' energy and making the teacher a sought-after ally. Secondly, the teacher may engage in bargaining with students. This strategy is increasingly common. Not only does this include the outright definition of what is and is not within the teacher's jurisdiction, but unspoken bargains as well. Students transform what a teacher says and does into rules for him/her to follow. Students expect consistency of teacher behavior and have effective sanctions to ensure this. They may be delightful in the presence of visitors or create enough noise to attract the attention of other teachers and the principal. Since the teacher is dependent upon the good will of students, he/she is forced to bargain further: "I'll give you extra time on the exam if you keep the noise down.".

The third mechanism for conflict reduction is student revolt. Geer states that revolt may occur when any bargain is broken. It occurs most often when the teacher oversteps his/her sphere of jurisdiction. It is the seemingly trivial dress codes and rules governing hallway or lunchroom behavior which enliven the biggest student protests.

3. Major implications for studying teaching: A logical outgrowth of this article would be to investigate other possible techniques of conflict resolution given the resources available to students and teachers.

4. Categories: #1 includes all definitions given by the author.

5. The nine elements: This entire article is a development of the "Standards and Sanctions" element and how sanctions are distributed to "Roles" through bargaining or non-bargaining (teacher hegemony or student revolt). Although "conflict-reduction" and "Standards and Sanctions" encompass the same actions, the two terms connote different purposes for the actions.

--Reviewed by Patricia Green

Source: Hargreaves, D. H. Interpersonal relations and education. London: Routledge and Kegan Paul, 1972.

1. Summary: The author attempts to specify some of the phenomonological components of the teacher-pupil relationship: the teacher's classroom role, the style adopted to perform this role, the teacher's definition of the situation, the "working consensus" agreed to by teacher and pupils, and the pupil's definition of the situation. Hargreaves discusses concepts other authors have applied to define each of these elements. The problem with these analyses is that they tend to look at "the teacher" as if there were but one type. Hargreaves' remedy is to construct three ideal types.

"Lion-tamers," "Entertainers," and "New Romantics" are the labels given to these types. They differ from each other along five dimensions: motives and incentives, content of the curriculum, teaching style, pupil's role, and evaluation procedures. Lion-tamers demand motivation by driving students; have a fixed curriculum; rely on the talk-and-chalk method of teaching; expect students to passively absorb everything the teacher says; and have fixed, well-defined evaluation procedures. "Entertainers" discover, cajole and encourage student motivation; develop interesting and relevant curricula; introduce a variety of educational materials and special aids into the classroom to keep children motivated and occupied; expect children to be noisy and active but still under teacher guidance; and emphasize evaluation slightly less than the lion-tamer. "New Romantics" believe that children are naturally motivated; allow complete student control of his/her own course of study; adopt the stance of a resource person; expect students to be their own teachers; and abandon evaluation procedures.

Hargreaves contends that it is not so much the types of sanctions, but the level of disciplinary skills which should be the focus of the study of classroom management. He identifies seven skills he has observed in classroom settings.

1. The teacher posses an extensive repertoire of effective control techniques that are readily available to use.

2. The teacher employs control techniques that meet both short-term and long-term objectives.

3. The teacher gets feedback on his or her own behavior and learns from the experience.

4. The teacher is able to maintain momentum and smoothness.

5. The teacher is able to make fast decisions.

6. The teacher is able to take prophylactic action.

7. The teacher cares for and trusts his pupils.

2. Major implications for a definition of teaching: The author considers teaching to be multi-faceted. It involves instruction, control, evaluation, motivation, and definition-making.

5. The nine elements: Pupil characteristics, Teacher characteristics, and Task are all related to Roles. It is the role adopted by the teacher which determines the teacher and pupil behaviors which will appear in the classroom and the kind of task which will be allocated.

--Reviewed by Patricia Green

Source: Larkin, R. W. Social exchange in the elementary school classroom: The problem of teacher legitimation of social power. Sociology of Education, 1975, 48, 400-410.

1. Summary: Larkin attempts to reexamine the effects of teachers' use of social power on classroom climate. After a brief discussion of the inconsistencies present in the research using White & Lippitt's conceptualization of authoritarian, laissez faire, and democratic power orientations of teachers and their effects on classroom morale, Larkin advances a Weberian alternative. He proposes that it is the degree of "legitimate authority" of a teacher and not the distribution and use of power within the classroom which determines classroom climate. Legitimate authority is hypothesized to stem from the exchange of affection between student and teacher and the ability of the teacher to convince students that he or she is working for their best interests.

   Larkin presents five hypotheses:

   1. Task orientation of the teacher and classroom morale will be positively related;

   2. Expressive orientation of the teacher and classroom morale will be positively related;

   3. Teacher power orientation and classroom morale will not be related;

   4. The higher the teacher's use of power, the greater the difficulty of legitimating his or her power;

   5. Teachers legitimate their power by satisfying the task and expressive needs of their pupils.

   The author contends that his data support these hypotheses. (See #6.)

2. Major implications for a definition of teaching: One statement seems to aptly summarize Larkin's view of teaching: "The teacher's duty is to mobilize the students around the various tasks to be done" (401).

4. Categories: The "task orientation" variable was designed to measure the amount of teacher emphasis on "getting the job done." This variable includes the degree to which pupil activity is programmed, and the amount of detailed, immediate feedback.

   "Power orientation" was meant to measure the relative amounts of teacher power and power delegated to students.

   The "Expressive orientation" variable was designed to indicate the degree of rapport and warmth between teacher and pupils.

"Classroom climate" was measured with three variables. "Morale" was defined as student liking of school. "Peer influence" was operationalized as the degree to which pupils reported the importance and impact of friends on their behaviors. "Centrality of peer group structure" was measured sociometrically. (It should be noted, however, that the theoretical place of peer influence and peer group centrality in the legitimation process is never fully explained.) The classes studied varied from those with a small core of high-status leaders to those with diffuse peer groups.

5. The nine elements: Teacher characteristics, expressiveness and task orientation seem to be the major determinants of classroom morale and the student's liking of school. Power orientation, which would seem to fit in the category of classroom roles, was found to be unimportant in determining student morale, but was found to be a determinant of peer influence and peer-group centrality. The higher the power orientation of the teacher the lower were peer influences and the more diffuse were peer groups.

6. Description of the study: Questionnaires were distributed to 1,750 elementary students in 75 fourth, fifth and sixth grade classrooms. The analysis of this questionnaire data, however, is very weak. Correlation coefficients are presented for the relationships between teacher leadership dimensions and classroom climate dimensions. No measures of association are computed for the cross tabulation of mean scores on morale, peer influence, and peer group centrality by teacher leadership mode.

--Reviewed by Patricia Green

Source: Lindholm, Lena-Pia and Lundquist, Barbro. Cooperation and independence: Studies of assessment techniques in observation of small groups. Malmo, Sweden: School of Education, Department of Educational and Psychological Research, 1973. (Educational and Psychological Interactions No. 42)

1. Summary: This is an exploratory study designed to assess the validity and reliability of observation instruments constructed to measure cooperation and independence in classroom group work. Research showed that "independence" and "lack of independence" were the most common and least common behaviors with "cooperation" and "inability to cooperate" falling in-between.

   The instrument was assessed to be valid. Independence and lack of independence, ability to cooperate and inability to cooperate, lack of independence and ability to cooperate, and independence and inability to cooperate were all found to covary negatively. A positive association existed between independence and ability to cooperate while no association was found between lack of independence and inability to cooperate. These four categories were also tested in relation to "situation bound" and "situation-free" criteria data. The researchers concluded that cooperative behaviors were influenced more heavily by the situation than independence behaviors. Correlations between the four categories and pupil characteristics such as personality tests, non-verbal and verbal intelligence tests, grades, sex and teacher assessment of creativity were also calculated.

   Finally factor analysis was used to determine if the sub-categories were appropriately grouped. Results indicated that only "lack of independence" was a real type. "General good group function" (rather than independence/inability to cooperate) were the only other factors isolated.

3. Major implications for studying teaching: Observation instruments were used to code from videotapes. School records and limited questioning of teachers and pupils also used.

4. Categories: The observation instrument included the following categories and sub-categories:

   1. Independence - ability to take initiative, ability to make critical judgments, leader ability, purposeful way of working

   2. Lack of independence - uncritical attitude, uncertainty in relationships with peers, uncertainty in work

   3. Ability to cooperate - coordination of work, positive attitude towards peers, contact seeking behaviors, social leadership

   4. Inability to cooperate - indifference to work, negative attitude toward peers, isolation, sabotage of work.

5. The nine elements: Cooperation and independence are treated as independent variables. Their use in this article would classify them as "pupil characteristics."

6. Description of the study:

   a) Behavior: Natural behavior was investigated. Six classes of fifth-graders participated. Each class was divided in half and each half class took part in six different lessons conducted by three different teachers. Lessons were divided into class discussion and small group (2-5 pupils) work.

   b) Setting: The research occurred in a special classroom equipped with three video-tape cameras.

   c) Treatment: The freqeency and relationship between independence and cooperative behaviors was the focus.

   d) Data collection: Coders used the observation instrument described in #3. High inter-observer reliability was found.

   e) Data analysis: Canonical correlation and factor analysis was used.

--Reviewed by Patricia Green

Source: Lortie, D. C. School teacher: A sociological study. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1975.

1. Summary: This book reports the results of a large survey of teachers' views of their own profession. Topics explored include recruitment into teaching (whether a result of affective choice or external constraint), socialization processes, the teacher's view of the rewards of teaching, the goals of teachers, the conflicts endemic in their roles, and teacher attachment to classroom and bureaucratic roles.

   The emphasis in the book is placed on description and typification. Lortie does not attempt to relate teacher views to pupil outcomes. He does provide an interesting look at the similarity and differences among a large cross section of teachers.

2. Major implications for a definition of teaching: The book is not so much concerned with the process of teaching as with teachers as persons: who they are, why they teach, how they feel about what they do.

5. The nine elements: This book would be useful in specifying the many sub-categories of "Teacher characteristics." Lortie does not suggest how these teacher characteristics influence or relate to any other elements.

6. Description of the study: Ninety-four teachers were interviewed in five towns in the Boston metropolitan area. A two-stage sampling method was used to ensure a range of socio-economic settings and grade levels. The response rate was 94%.

   A slightly shortened version of the questionnaire was administered to the entire professional staff of Dade County, Florida schools. The 5,000+ teachers who completed the questionnaire were found to have extremely diverse and widely distributed geographic origins. The questionnaire is included in the appendix. Quantitative analysis is limited to frequency distributions on six measures.

--Reviewed by Patricia Green

Source: McPherson, G. H. Small town teacher. Cambridge: Harvard University Press, 1972.

1. Summary: In this book, the author relates her experiences as an elementary teacher in a small, isolated New England town. The book is based upon her dissertation research, which utilized disguised participant observation, conducted during her sixth year of teaching at Adams school. Rich in detail and description, it insightfully probes the conflict and tension inherent in the role of the teacher.

   A. McPherson states that even the development of a "self-image" was problematic for the teacher. "Teacher as disciplinarian" was one strand of this self-image. Deportment of pupils was probably the most visible result of a teacher's work to colleagues and outsiders. Thus, classroom control became an important element in the prestige ranking of a teacher. In Adams school, keeping the classroom door open all the time was the signal to passers-by that the teacher was in complete control. This emphasis on discipline also created problems for the teacher since being liked and respected by pupils was also important for teacher prestige and self-concept.

      A second major strand in this self-image was "teacher as director of learning." "Learning and performance" are both teacher goals but two which are not always compatible. Since the relationship between teaching method and pupil performance is much more direct and salient than that between teaching method and real learning, teachers at Adams school tended to emphasize the performance goal.

      "Teacher as Industrious Worker" was also necessary for the preservation of a favorable self-image. The low status of the teaching profession in the occupational structure was responsible for this. In practice this meant that teachers preferred to assign tasks with highly visible results. Worksheets, written homework, and papers were signs to the community as well as to other teachers that a teacher was hard working. Teachers constantly referred to how tired they were and even would make it a point to turn down social invitations in a subtle effort to display their industriousness.

      The teachers also developed a strong notion of "teacher rights." Unequal treatment of teachers by administration was only legitimate if some trade-off was to be made or if it resulted from an unavoidable situation. Autonomy in the classroom and the right to continue teaching the same grade were also considered inalienable rights.

   B. Relationships between teachers were also conflict-laden. Although the teacher spent most of the day in the isolation of the classroom,

his or her work could be seen and evaluated by colleagues. Support and loyalty were expected from other teachers but the importance of autonomy limited the extent to which this support could be expressed. As a result, teachers were defensive and closed-mouthed about their teaching styles.

C. Teacher's role expectations for the pupils required "docility" and "effort." The combination of these two in a pupil was considered "success." The reasons suggested why these were the most important character traits of students for teachers are provocative. McPherson suggests that "docility" is a highly observable trait. Docile pupils are visible proof to the world that the teacher is in control. "Effort" is important because a teacher can more easily influence this than native intelligence and can thus take credit for it.

Students who were academically successful but lacked either or both of these traits were trials to the teacher. Their success could not be explained by the teacher. Consequently, these students were considered less successful than their docile, hard-working peers. This phenomenon is is part of the teacher's role as "gatekeeper." It is the teacher who defines and measures "success." Thus, it was possible for a teacher to retain a student who performed at grade level on standardized tests because he was lazy and rude: "Intelligence isn't the only important quality. One has to get along with others in this world."

D. McPherson also discusses the tensions in the relationship between teachers and parents, and those within the organizational hierarchy of the school.

2. Major implications for a definition of teaching: Teaching is prescribing what is to be learned, managing the classroom, and defining and measuring success." These can be translated into three distinct teacher roles: "instructor," "traffic-cop" and "gate-keeper."

4. Categories: In addition to the concepts outlined in the first section of this review, the author also presents a "typology of pupils as classified by teachers" (95).

	Success		Failure	
	Effort	Absence of Effort	Effort	Absence of Effort
Docility	Winners	Aristocrats	Ritualists	Wallflowers
Lack of Docility	Trouble-Makers (Innovators)	Magicians	Soreheads	Losers (Rebels)

"Winners" and "losers" are expected by the teachers. The existence of "ritualists" in the classroom is a severe blow to the teacher's self-concept. "Magicians," "Aristocrats" and "Troublemakers" are enigmas to the teacher and their existence is often explained by social class factors. "Wallflowers" and "Sore-heads" were also a trial to teachers. Their existence was sometimes accounted for by sex-roles.

5. The nine elements: McPherson is primarily concerned with role structure. The conflicting demands of teacher roles determine pupil roles, standards and sanctions, and task.

6. Description of the study: Participant observation of colleagues and pupils was conducted by an established teacher and formed the basis for this book. Adams school employed eight teachers, from grades K-6, and was located in an isolated New England village. The community itself was extremely stratified by class. No quantitative data analysis is presented.

--Reviewed by Patricia Green

Source: Pepitone, E. A. Comparison behavior in elementary school children. American Educational Research Journal, 1972, 9(1), 45-62.

1. Summary: This article reports the results of three experimental studies designed to investigate the conditions under which comparison behaviors will occur. Social-psychological theory would predict comparison behaviors (attempting to evaluate oneself with reference to other members of a group) to be highest in situations of cognitive unclarity, in situations where an evaluative atmosphere permeates, and/or in situations in which the tasks of group members are identical. Furthermore, the author suggests that while comparison behaviors can be instigated by any of these motives, "The very act of comparison can itself generate another motive." The experiments were designed to study the comparison behavior of elementary school children while controlling for cognitive unclarity, task similarity, and confidence, competence and achievement-related motives. The results are reported below in #6.

2. Major implications for a definition of teaching: This article is not concerned with teaching per se but with task structure and comparison behaviors.

3. Major implications for studying teaching: The experimental design used observers to record pupil behaviors. The most notable aspect of the methodology was the high inter-observer reliability on non-verbal pupil communication.

5. The nine elements: Task and Pupil interaction were the major variables investigated. The relevant dimensions of task in this experiment were the cognitive clarity/unclarity of the exercise and the similarity/differences among group members' tasks. The pupil characteristics which are examined are sex, level of confidence, and self-evaluation of pupils' work.

6. Description of the study: Subjects were middle-class, white suburban third-graders from nine elementary schools. Five children from the same classroom were taken out of class and brought to a library or music room within the school. The task they engaged in, the construction of a segment of a large jigsaw puzzle, was designed to avoid pupil likes and dislikes, control for differences in ability, simulate classroom seatwork, and allow pupils to move about and interact freely. A pair of observers recorded the frequency of "comparison behaviors" ("attentional acts," both verbal and non-verbal, and "evaluational acts," verbal only) and "achievement-related social behaviors" ("besting behaviors" and "positive and negative social behaviors").

   Three experiments were conducted. The first examined the impact of cognitive unclarity on comparison behavior. In six groups the model puzzle was demonstrated but then removed, while in six other groups the model was demonstrated and then left for students to refer to. The hypothesis that students turn to other students for information when task uncertainties exist was substantiated. T-tests indicated that the model-absent groups engaged in a significantly higher amount of independent work, spent more time looking at others' work, and displayed significantly more besting behaviors and negative social acts.

The second experiment examined the impact of three different situations: identical tasks, similar tasks, and very different tasks. Again, as expected, identical tasks stimulated more comparison behavior than the other two conditions.

The final experiment concerned sex-differences and confidence as they impinge upon comparison behavior. Results indicated that girls engaged in more comparison behavior than boys. Pepitone explained this sex difference by the more frequent expressions of self-assurance made by boys. When "expressions of assurance" are correlated with comparison behaviors, the sex difference disappears.

--Reviewed by Patricia Green

Source: Poppleton, Pamela K. The classroom setting as a unit of analysis in observation studies. In Gabriel Chanan and Sarah Delamont (Eds.), Frontiers of classroom research. Windsor: NFER Publishing Co., 1975.

1. Summary: The author explores problems connected with choosing a unit of analysis in classroom research (#4) through a brief examination of the results of her own and others' research and concludes with implications for future research (#3).

2. Major implications for a definition of teaching: The use of "setting" as the unit of analysis suggests that the most important component of teaching is organization of classroom activities. Poppleton states that setting determines what type of interaction is likely to take place. This perspective implies that teaching is the creation, definition and management of the setting.

3. Major implications for studying teaching: Three major issues should be considered when deciding upon the unit of analysis.

   A) The size (molar vs. molecular) and nature (analytic vs. phenomenal) will profoundly influence results. Settings are fundamentally molar in that they are sequences of events. However, since they are coherent sequences focused on a single task and purpose, they are suitable for analysis. Sampling and the relative time spent in each setting must be of concern to the researcher. Settings are also phenomenal units. Arguments have been made that such units are too gross; they define the boundaries of what may happen but cannot detail the interaction which does occur with any precision. Poppleton suggests that settings be more precisely distinguished (see #4), and that analytic units which have a specific theoretical base ("cycles," "episodes," "moves") be used within phenomenal units.

   B) Observation of settings can lead to an understanding of teacher roles. While the range and variety of settings provided by the teacher can be clues to the teacher's conception of his/her role, it is "by examining the pattern of interaction within the setting that the relationship between intention and action can be revealed." If a teacher is authoritarian in an open setting as well as a traditional setting, the researcher can draw some conclusions regarding the teacher's perception of his/her role. Poppleton also notes that time and space may act as constraints on a teacher's choice of setting.

   C) The sample must be well defined in terms of pupil, task, architecture and organizational activities if research findings are to be generalized.

4. Categories: Phenomenal units are "natural breaks in the stream of classroom processes which may be recognized by all participants." "Segments" and "Settings" are phenomenal units. The setting

"determines who communicates with whom and for what purpose."

Eight classroom settings are defined by Poppleton:

a) Teacher instructs the whole class (TIC) or a small group (TIG).

b) Teacher organizes activity for the whole class (TOC) or a small group (TOG).

c) Children work individually on assignments (IA) or on projects (IP)

d) Children work in pairs or small groups on assignments (GA) or projects (GP).

5. The nine elements:

4. Role: Role is considered only in relation to the teacher's choice of setting. In essence it is used almost as a synonym for "predisposition" in this article since the author sees the teacher's conception of role as determining which settings a teacher will offer and how he/she will choose to act. Role is not shaped through interaction, rather interaction is determined by role.

6 & 7. Place and Task: Place and task are both elements of "setting." Setting is used to mean both social organization and physical arrangement of students.

--Reviewed by Patricia Green

Source: Posner, G.J. The extensiveness of curriculum structure: A conceptual scheme. Review of Educational Research, 1974, 44, 401-407.

1. Summary: This author integrates the work of previous authors and develops a conceptual framework for the analysis of the extensiveness of curriculum. (See #4)

2. Major implications for a definition of teaching: The article is concerned solely with curriculum and does not examine the teacher's role.

3. Major implications for studying teaching: The author suggests variables for research (See #4) but does not discuss methodology.

4. Categories: Curriculum is defined as a structured series of intended learning outcomes (ILO's). These can be individual elements (micro) or classes/sets of such elements (macro).

   Extensiveness of curriculum structure can be conceptualized along two dimensions. Commonality is the degree to which elements are identical (repeated) or independent. Temporality is the temporal quality of relationships between elements. Elements can be "vertical" (temporally subsequent) or "horizontal" (concurrent). In addition, vertical elements may be either "contiguous" or "non-contiguous." The following table represents the relationship between this conseptualization and terminology used by other authors.

	COMMONALITY		
TEMPORALITY	IDENTICAL	RELATED	INDEPENDENT
Contiguous	"commonality"(Anderson) "continuity" (Schrader; Tyler)	"sequence" (Tyler) "spiraling"(Schrader) "vertical structure"(Briggs)	"progression" (Anderson)
non-Contiguous	—	"spiraling" (Bruner)	
HORIZONTAL	—	"integration" (Tyler)	"flat structure" (Briggs)

The author suggests a number of variables for research in curriculum structure:

1. Independent Variables
   a. Extent of curriculum structure on micro-level
   b. Extent of curriculum structure on macro-level

2. Dependent Variables
   a. Student recall, retention, transfer, cognitive differentiation, etc.
   b. Student interest and satisfaction with course
   c. Student perception of structure
   d. Student awareness of program goals and learning objectives
   e. Teacher satisfaction with course
   f. Ease of instructional planning
   g. Ease of evaluation planning

5. The nine elements: "Task" would have to be redefined to include curriculum. Currently it seems to refer primarily to the social organization of a learning activity and not to the organization of the knowledge which is presented.

   "Time" is much broader than Posner's "temporal sequence", however I believe that the latter is included in the definition of the former (see 4.5(d)).

--Reviewed by Patricia Green

Source: Powell, John L. A Scottish alternative to interaction analysis. In Gabriel Chanan and Sarah Delamont (Eds.), Frontiers in classroom research. Windsor: NFER Publishing, 1975.

1. Summary: This is a report of a new observation instrument premised on the notion that interaction analysis is too microscopic. A more global picture of the classroom is needed than can be provided by low-inference measures of interaction. The author contends that high-inference measures are justifiable in classroom research if the observers are highly-trained. Sample items from the proposed instrument are provided in the article.

3. Major implications for studying teaching: Fifty-five items are included on the schedule, each with five levels. An example:

Visible differentiation by ability/achievement:

1) Pupils seated in rank order in accordance with test results or teacher's current assessment of each pupil's relative merit.

2) Pupils work for most of the time in ability groups whose composition does not change from subject to subject.

3) Pupils work for most of the time in ability groups, but with membership of groups varied according to subject.

4) Work undertaken in ability groups either for one or two subjects or by some children only (e.g. the least and most able).

5) No intentional correspondence between seating position and ability/achievement and no regular work undertaken in groups of identifiable ability level.

The items can be divided into seven groups:

(1) those relating to practices about what the teacher is questioned to supplement what may be observed (7 items)

(2) those relating to the direction or control of work (5 items)

(3) those relating to teaching and learning (9 items)

(4) those relating to motivation, class control, and discipline (11 items)

(5) those relating to underemployment of pupils (4 items)

(6) those relating to teacher personality and relationships with pupils (5 items)

(7) miscellaneous - mode of performing administrative functions, pupil talk, etc. (13 items)

The author also discusses the two major problems in developing such instruments. Many proposed variables had either no uniform variability (e.g. "diversions" are always present, they only differ in kind) or more than one dimension was included (e.g., a proposed measure of task organization included difficulty levels, subject areas and number of groups in one measure).

Powell hopes to use cluster analysis to delimit common teaching strategies and then relate these cluster attributes to cognitive and affective outcomes in each classroom.

5. The nine elements: Insufficient examples from the instrument make it difficult to discern which variables are of concern.

--Reviewed by Patricia Green

Source: Richer, Stephen. School effects: The case for grounded theory. Sociology of Education, 1975, 48, 383-399.

1. Summary: Primarily a critique of past research, this article enumerates the major problems of input-output studies:

   A) There is no theoretical justification for expecting school resources to have a direct effect on students' cognitive achievement.

   B) The validity of the measures used is dubious. Often such variables as "resources" or "plant size" are employed because they are available and they are interval measures which allow sophisticated statistical analysis.

   C) "Outcome" is too narrowly defined.

   D) Survey research lends an "aura of precision" to these studies but is an inappropriate method. Survey research is best for hypothesis testing. Since the theoretical underpinnings are weak or absent in educational surveys, the results are of little utility.

   E) The independent variables are not related in a simple way. The plethora of interaction effects which have been found illustrates the complexity of the area and the need for a solid theoretical structure.

   F) Using the school as the unit of analysis creates two problems. Within-school variance is greater than between-school variance. A selection problem, due to neighborhood class structure, exists at this level for which statistical partialling cannot compensate.

   These criticisms lead the author to suggest the classroom as the focus for longitudinal research. Extensive observation should emphasize the way in which teachers and pupils define the situation as well as cathective and evaluative dimensions of education.

2. Major implications for a definition of teaching: The author never defines teaching, but he does discuss two aspects of it at length: First, the way in which the teacher's definition of the situation influences students' evaluations of themselves, peers, and knowledge. Secondly, the teacher's role as a "traffic manager" or "ringmaster". Adjustment to a constant barrage of stimuli is a relevant dimension of teaching. The way in which a teacher manages has direct effects on pupils, e.g., the delays they will experience. This creates the actual situation in which the students function.

3. Major implications for studying teaching: Richer advocates observation in natural settings, especially elementary classrooms. Careful attention should also be paid to conversations among teachers and

among students which occur in lunchrooms and playgrounds. The focus should be on desired student characteristics, consequences of labels, and the process of internalization.

4. Categories: Few definitions are offered, but Richer does suggest some interesting concepts. The traditional "method of instruction" variable should be redesigned to include such elements as "delay". Traditional notions (lectures, discussion) do not adequately describe the situation facing the student. The "cathective" dimension refers to the process by which a student evaluates and decides upon the significance of his/her relation to persons and objects.

5. The nine elements:

    2. Teachers: Teachers' characteristics are seen to be of little importance in past research. The author suggests that they may be irrelevant in this type of research.

    4. Role: Role is used in the context of "classroom roles" (court jester, non-worker). The way in which they are assigned and the consequences of this is seen as an important area for investigation. It is important to note that Richer does not connect "role" and "definition of the situation". The former is used in the sense of "label" while the latter is more broadly painted as "world-view".

    5. Time: Time might include the concept of delay. The institutionalized patterns of delay (seatwork while the teacher works with one group) should be examined as well as the consequence of delay (boredom, deviance, independence).

    8. Standards and sanctions: Standards and sanctions are not discussed although the question of what counts as knowledge is an important aspect of the cathective dimension.

    9. Communication: Communication could include the subtle transmission of the teacher's definition of the situation to students. While the teacher may never say or explain what is significant, it is transmitted through the organization of the class, the assignment of roles, etc.

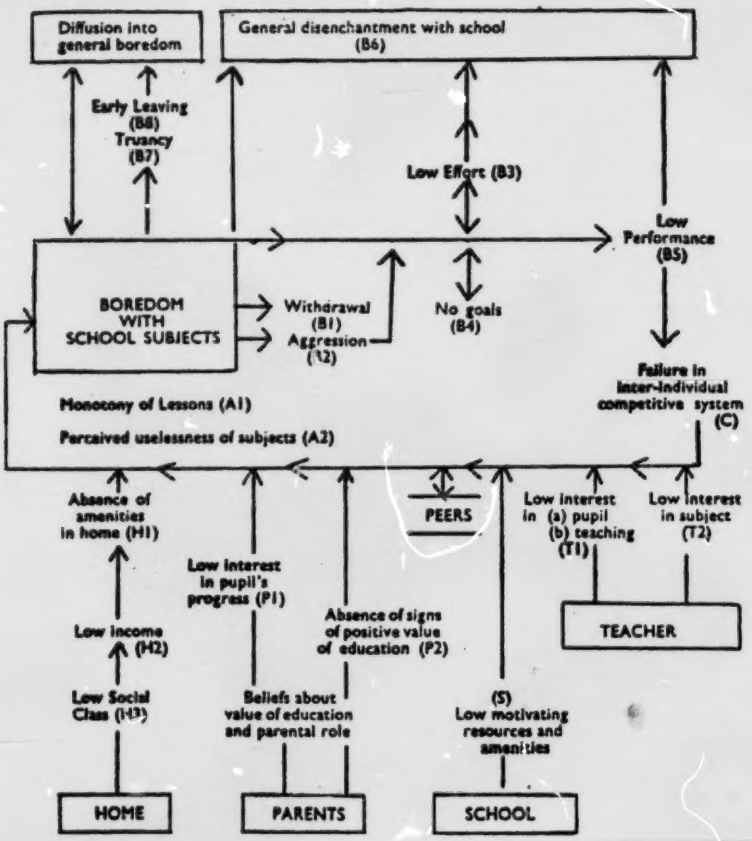
--Reviewed by Patricia Green

Source: Robinson, W. P. Boredom at school. British Journal of Educational Psychology, 1975, 45, 141-152.

1. Summary: Through the secondary analysis of data gathered in an earlier study, the author presents and tests a model of the dynamics of boredom. Cross-tabulations were constructed and chi-square statistics calculated for each of the numbered hypotheses indicated on the following figure (e.g., B1, P2). On the basis of these results, the author suggests that this is a reasonable model.

FIGURE 1

REPRESENTATION OF DYNAMIC OF BOREDOM AND OTHER VARIABLES.



2. Major implications for a definition of teaching: The author does not discuss teaching.

4. Categories: Boredom is a state of being and should not be confused with its antecedents or consequences. This state may be produced by a number of causes, including monotony and perceived uselessness of task. It may also have any number of consequences. "If a person has coping strategies

and is free to adopt them, he can escape from incipient boredom" (141). However, when coping strategies are limited, boredom may lead to withdrawal or aggression.

The analysis of boredom is further complicated by students' loose use of the term. Robinson notes that students state that they are bored when their state might be more accurately described as one of frustration or fear of failure. Since these states can have the same observable consequences as boredom, this topic poses dificult problems for research.

5. The nine elements: Boredom can be seen as a student's phenomenological definition of the situation.

6. Description of the study: Interviews were conducted with 4,618 13-16 year old pupils, teachers and parents. Boredom was the focus of a special questionnaire within the larger study. For details of the methodology employed, see Morton-Williams, R. The 1964 national survey: Survey among parents of primary school children. In Plowden Report. Children and their primary schools. London: HSMO, 1967.

--Reviewed by Patricia Green

Source: Sharp, Rachel and Green, Anthony. Education and social control. London: Routledge and Kegan Paul, 1975.

1. Summary: The purported aim of this book was to demonstrate how "school ethos" can affect teacher perspectives and how this perspective (in combination with the exigencies of classroom life) defines students' identities. Outside of an initial abstract theoretical chapter, no attempt is made to generalize findings or propose hypotheses. The book does offer beautiful ethnographic descriptions of the processes which shape student identities and teachers' own evaluations of their philosophy and technique.

2. Major implications for a definition of teaching: The authors offer no definition of teaching but report the defintions given by headmaster and teachers, pointing out their ambiguities.

3. Major implications for studying teaching: Extensive observation documented by field notes was the method used.

6. Description of the study:

   a & b) Behavior and Setting: Three natural classrooms were observed in the "Infant department" of a British public school.

   c) Treatment: Special attention was paid to the formulation and inculcation of student identities.

   d) Data collection: Field notes were taken by the three observers.

   e) Data analysis: Very little analysis was conducted. Each classroom is considered a case study of teacher perspective and student identity.

--Reviewed by Patricia Green

Source: Stebbins, R. A. The meaning of disorderly behavior: Teacher definitions of a classroom situation. Sociology of Education, 1970, 44, 217-236.

1. Summary: The aim of this paper is to explore the ways in which experienced teachers define misconduct in the classroom. Four major dimensions of teachers' working definitions of disorderly behavior were uncovered: type of disorderly behavior, level of the student's academic performance, usual deportment of the pupil, and degree to which pupil meets teacher expectations.

   Three major types of disorderly behavior were classified by Stebbins, the first of which is talking or whispering. Teachers defined this behavior as misconduct primarily when students were waiting idly after completion of a task. When pupils were actively engaged in work, this same behavior was construed as either an acceptable vent for student expression or as task-related interaction. Calm reminders were the tools used by teachers to counteract these disruptions.

   "Side involvements" were a second category of misconduct which included playing with pencils, carving on desks, etc. This type of behavior occurs most frequently between assignments and at times of formal change in routine, but was more frequently challenged when these side involvements ocurred during the actual lesson. Scoldings and angry reminders were the most frequent responses of teachers.

   The third type of disorderly behavior was termed "being away" and included such activities as daydreaming and looking out the window. Teachers used calm reminders to regain these pupils' attention.

   The remaining three dimensions, academic performance, deportment, and teacher expectation were used by the teachers in deciding whether the misconduct should be sanctioned. For example, talking and "being away" were often ignored if the pupil was regarded as either badly behaved or below average in academic achievement because of the teacher's desire to "avoid provocation." Teachers use these three dimensions to calculate the student's motives, goals, expectations of being sanctioned, subsequent direction of behavior if allowed to continue, and probable effect of sanctioning.

2. Major implications for a definition of teaching: Stebbins is not concerned with developing a comprehensive picture of teaching. His major concern is the way in which teachers define, and therefore deal with, disorderly behavior. The author refers to Smith and Geoffrey's concept of "ringmastership" in discussing the need for teachers to develop habitual definitions since these behaviors are frequent, repetetive and are seen by teachers as impediments to effective teaching.

4. Categories: See #1.

5. The nine elements: This article is an exploration of the relationship between teachers' phenomenological definition of the environment and the use of sanctions. The teacher's definitions necessarily entail their

perception of student characteristics, role expectations, the temporal locus of the situation (time of day, stage of academic year, proximity to special event) and classroom task. Sanctions are loosely classified along two dimensions: "order for order's sake" confrontations vs. impediments to "teaching aims" confrontations and "verbal warnings" vs. "detention, relocation, or confiscation."

6. Description of the study: Extensive teacher interviews and classroom observation were used in this study which attempted to generalize the concept of "definition of the situation" according to the criteria reported in a previous article by the author. Thirty-six teachers of Grades 3, 4, 7 and 8, and 10 and 11 participated. All teachers had at least two years of experience and volunteered their cooperation. No quantitative analysis of the data is presented.

--Reviewed by Patricia Green

Source: Stebbins, Robert A. Studying the definition of the situation: Theory and field research strategies. The Canadian Review of Sociology and Anthropology, 1969, 6(4), 193-211.

1. Summary: An attempt should be made to make general statements about classes of definitions (of the situation) used by identifiable groups of people in particular but recurrent situations. Three multi-dimensional ideal types of defintions of the situation can be identified.

    1. "'Cultural definitions' are collective representations," commonly shared and recognized as such by all. This type may be idiosyncratically tailored to some extent.

    2. "Habitual personal definitions" when "the same category of situation holds roughly the same meaning for a particular class of actor participating in it, but in which each individual participant is more or less unaware that people like him.... define them in the same way."

    3. "Unique personal definitions" occur only when no cultural or habitual personal definition exist for the situation. This type is found when an actor is confronted by a novel situation and must seek to integrate past experience in order to interpret the event.

    The development and application of the definition occurs in a specific sequence:

    1. "Typical actors in a given identity enter a typical setting with a specific intention or action orientation in mind."

    2. "Certain aspects of these surroundings, some of which are related to the intention, activate or awaken some of the predispositions the actors characteristically carries with them."

    3. "The aspects of the surroundings, the intentions, and the activated predispositions, when considered together, lead to the selection of a cultural or habitual definition."

    4. "This definition directs subsequent action in the situation, at least until a reinterpretation occurs."

    This sequence suggests research on two questions. What definitions are available to persons in a given social identity? What common predispositions are activated by the setting that account for variation in the definitions selected by different classes of actors within an identity?

    Stebbins then outlines a research agenda (see #3) and illustrates it with an example of a completed field experiment.

3. Major implications for studying teaching. The following steps are advised:

    1. Observe to discover what the "recurring situations" within the setting are.

    2. Focus on the recurring situations, trying to form rough ideas of subjects' definitions based upon their actions.

    3. Question the subject to ascertain his definition of the situation. Thirteen relevant dimensions are listed:

        a. identification by the identity incumbents of the relevant others present
        b. the incumbent's perception of the evaluation that those others have made, including moral, emotional or sentimental connotations
        c. the incumbents' perceptions of the goals or intentions of the others while in the setting
        d. the incumbents' perception of the plans of action of relevant others
        e. the incumbents' perception of the justifications or vocabularies of motives associated with the others' plans of action
        f. the incumbents' evaludation of the situation
        g. the incumbents' plan of action
        h. the incumbents' justification of the plans
        i. the identity incumbents' perception of the identification of them by relevant others
        j. the incumbents' perception of the evaluation of the situation which is imputed to them by others
        k. the incumbents' perception of the intentions imputed to them
        l. the incumbents' perception of the plans of action imputed to them
        m. incumbents' perceptions of the justifications of the plans imputed to them

    4. Additional questioning of the subject should be done to determine what predispositions are likely to be activated in certain social situations. (Racial bigotry will not be activated in mathematics although it may influence social studies lesson). Predispositions include attitudes, values, general life goals, ideal self conceptions, internalized role expectations, interests, etc.

    5. Analysis is then focused upon identifying clusters of predispositions and definitions which are associated for different classes of actors in a given situation.

Stebbins notes two methodological problems. Questioning should be done in person since many items involving their definition of the situation are subtle. Also the timing of the questioning is important. Although it would seem ideal to question incumbents immediately after the event to avoid re-interpretation based on after-the-fact occurrences, in novel situations many people will not be able to define the situation since more time is needed for reflection.

4. Categories: "Identity" seems to be used to mean the same as "role" does in traditional symbolic interaction terminology.

--Reviewed by Patricia Green

Source: Stubbs, Michael. Language, schools, and classrooms. London: Metheun, 1976.

1. Summary: The author contends that classroom language is an important, but neglected aspect of education. Analyses of classroom dialogue may help in understanding how knowledge is selected, organized and transmitted:

> "By studying the sequencing and structure of teacher pupil dialogue, we can study in empirical detail how teachers divide knowledge into discrete 'topics', how they relate one topic to another, how they present knowledge as discrete 'facts' or as more open-ended suggestions and hypotheses, how they evaluate pupils' contributions as correct or appropriate, how they control what is relevant to talk about in classrooms, and so on."

The majority of the book is focused on reviewing the work of sociolinguistics, especially Bernstein and Labov. Also, one chapter is devoted to a review of empirical studies of classroom language (see #4). Stubbs emphasizes that this research supports the proposition that the social situation is the strongest determinant of verbal behavior. Talk can serve different functions in different classrooms. In a traditional "chalk and talk" classroom one can expect more metacommunication and verbal transmission of knowledge than would be found in an informal classroom, where the social relationships within small groups must be sustained through verbal exchange. In almost any school setting, the child's total verbal competence will not be demonstrated. He/She is limited by the artificial nature of most teacher-pupil dialogue. This artificiality is due to assymetry in status, lack of opportunity to initiate, lack of interest in content, and the character of teacher "questioning".

2. Major implications for a definition of teaching: "We can regard teaching, first as a speech event with specific rules and expectations concerning appropriate teacher and pupil behavior. Second, we can study these rules for what they reveal about underlying assumptions about how knowledge should be selected, organized and transmitted to pupils."

3. Major implications for studying teaching: Natural observation is urged. Also, the stop-frame cinematography of Adelman and Walker is praised.

4. Categories: Sinclair & Coulthard's terminology for analysing the structure of classroom discourse is used. A "teaching exchange" unit generally consists of teacher's initiation, pupil's response, teacher feedback (IRF) or some combination of these in different order. "I", "R", and "F" can each be considered "moves". Some "moves" can further analyzed into "acts", "starter" (introductory statement), "elicitation" (asking question), "prompt" (encouragement), and/or "nomination" (naming student).

A "boundary exchange" also has moves. "Frames" indicate boundaries and "focus" indicates direction of the lesson.

A "transaction" consists of an initial boundary exchange, followed by any number of teaching exchanges.

5. The nine elements: "Task", "Role" and "Communication" are intricately woven in classroom dialogue.

   A. Different tasks demand differing degrees of metacommunication as well as differing types of verbal exchange and non-verbal evaluations of what is being transmitted.

   B. "Role" determines the structure of opportunities for "Communication". Subordinate-superordinate exchanges are not identical to verbal exchange between equals.

   C. "Task" determines the relative status of each classroom "Role" and hence the structure of opportunities to communicate.

-Reviewed by Patricia Green

Source: Waller, Willard The sociology of teaching. New York: John Wiley, 1932.

1. Summary: The school "is a despotism in a state of perilous equilibrium. It is a despotism threatened from within and exposed to regulation and interference from without." Waller argues that the school is an organized structure of superordinate-subordinate relationships and that the most volatile of these is the teacher-pupil relationship.

   Teaching is a form of institutional leadership. Prestige and authority are invested in the office of teacher, not the person. As a consequence, the definition of the situation is created by the institution and is less sensitive to the leader's personality. The lack of fluidity under such conditions places teachers and pupils in a somewhat untenable position.

   Formality is a viable compromise in this situation. By preventing the contact of personalities, social distance is increased and the likelihood of friction is reduced. A ritual of politeness can also lessen the psychological significance of subordination for the pupils; formality specifies the role relationship and empties it of "whole-person" meaning. Thus, the only conflict within the classroom exists on the level of "meaning". Roles, rules, and routines are non-negotiable given the balance of power, but their meaning and significance to pupils are a disputed matter.

   It is at this level that the personal dynamic of the teacher comes into play. The aspect of classroom life in which teacher personality is most influential is "discipline". Waller defines discipline as "mixed rapport" and outlines five techniques for its maintenance. "Commands" are suggestions which assume obedience. "Punishment" is a measured pain or inconvenience doled out to the "role", not the person, and functions to define the situation. "Management or the manipulation of group relationships" is the conscious toying with school-teacher, teacher-pupils, and/or pupil-pupil alliances. "Temper" is the open display of personal anger by the teacher. "Appeal" is any attempt to persuade, suggest or activate pupil attitudes and values. The success of the first two techniques depends upon institutional support while the others are dependant upon the teacher's own skill.

2. Major implications for a definition of teaching: Teaching is essentially leadership. However, the style of leadership is not straightforward since the classroom exists on two levels, as a primary group and as a well-defined organizational structure. Teaching then is a skill for keeping conflict at a minimum by integrating institutional authority with personal dynamic.

3. Major implications for studying teaching: Waller makes use of his long term experience in schools. It is through the analysis of dialogue that he arrives at his classification of discipline techniques and guages the degree of social distance and formality present.

4. Categories: See #1 (Discipline)

5. The nine elements: "Discipline" is a much broader term, in this context, than "Standards and Sanctions". It includes motivation and manipulation of social relations. Also, since it is an area in which personality infiltrates institutional role, it has consequences for student meaning. A rule enforced by a command may take on a different meaning than a rule upheld through appeal.

   "Teacher characteristics" are very important to Waller and interact with "Role" and the degree of institutional authority the teacher will adopt. The interaction between "Role" and "Teacher personality" determine discipline.

--Reviewed by Patricia Green